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ABSTRACT

The handbook provides a compilation of presentations and papers on the development of potential leadership in the education of gifted and talented students. Chapter I, "Certain Criteria Lead Toward Leadership" (P. Judkins), discusses identification of potential leadership characteristics. In Chapter II, "Leading Leaders" (J. Olivero), leadership training in the schools is addressed, including leadership program options and teacher qualifications. The importance of responsible youth participation roles within community institutions is noted in Chapter III, "More Than A Student-Developing Leadership Potential in Youth" (M. Ruiz). Chapter IV, "Leadership, The Gifted Population and the Center for Creative Leadership--A Network System" (J. Cavedon), reports on research and training workshops conducted by the Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, North Carolina. The use of business and industry as resources for leadership training and the "school within a school" project are considered in Chapter V, "Gifted and Talented Students Learn Leadership from Business" (D. Treloar). Chapter VI, "Creative Leadership" (S. Parnes), describes leadership training techniques used in a program for teachers and students at Buffalo State University College, Buffalo, New York. Chapter VII provides a survey of literature on leadership by a team from the Los Angeles Unified School District, covering such topics as definition of leadership, leadership theories, measurement of leadership traits, and principles of leadership programs. (IM)

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A NEW GENERATION OF LEADERSHIP

It is time for a new generation of leadership, to cope with new problems and new opportunities. For there is a new world to be won.

John F. Kennedy
Television address
July 4, 1960

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EDUCATION FOR THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

N/S-LTI-G/T Brief Number 4

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FOREWORD

by A. Harry Passow
Jacob H. Schiff Professor of Education
Teachers College, Columbia University

Shortly before the outbreak of World War II almost four decades ago, Leta S. Hollingworth, who pioneered along with Lewis M. Terman in research on the education of gifted children, wrote: "The times cry out for leaders to guide the people safely in a world where, without vision, more people will perish in more different ways than have ever perished before."* Science, technology, international relations and the general human condition have since reached a point where our need for leaders with vision is even more urgent today.

All society profits from the work of relatively few talented individuals. The general welfare, the standard of living, the cultural level of society all depend to a great extent on the contributions of a comparatively small number of citizens—individuals who have developed their outstanding abilities and who are providing leadership in these areas of specialized talent. In almost every aspect of our lives, society needs the intelligence, the creativity, and the critical judgment of talented people. And, while by no means are all of our nation's leaders gifted individuals, if we are to maintain and advance our human existence, if we are to come to grips with the vast array of problems society faces, then we must identify and develop our talented persons in ways which will insure their filling the leadership gap.

Society has a need for individuals who are intelligent, imaginative, educated, and motivated to provide leadership through their planning, creating, inventing, teaching, and building. We need philosophers and physicists, teachers and technicians, historians and humanists, mathematicians and musicians, executives and engineers as well as a variety of other gifted and talented individuals, all of whom exercise leadership by virtue of their superior achievement and performance in socially valuable areas of endeavor. Thus, in at least one sense of the term, the development of individual talent potential is the development of leadership. Society is constantly being renewed as individuals fill these roles and functions.

Coupled with the need for developing the special abilities and potential of the talented and gifted is the need for insuring that such gifts and talents are used for the good of society and not for selfish purposes. Because the gifted youth of today are potentially leaders for tomorrow, they must learn to understand and appreciate their responsibilities to society as well as the

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* Leta S. Hollingworth, "What We Know About the Early Selection and Training of Leaders," Teachers College Record, Vol. 40 (April 1939), p. 575.

possible rewards. As potential leaders of the future, the talented will approach the ideal of benefiting mankind only if they are provided with experiences which stimulate democratic attitudes, sensitivity to the problems of their fellow men, self-understanding, and a concern for the condition of society which motivate the use of one's talents in socially valuable ways. Thus, education of the gifted and talented for leadership involves not only the development of unusual potential but the values, the concern, the motivation to use those special talents for the benefit of society.

There is, in addition to leadership which is related to the exercise of outstanding abilities, an aspect of giftedness which itself represents an area of specialized talent—namely, social leadership. There are individuals who have unusual skills and sensitivities for working with groups and individuals. Such persons have the skills, the knowledge, and the insights to influence or control other individuals toward the attainment of common goals. Such individuals have the empathy and sensitivity to act in social or political settings and influence the direction of the social interaction in those settings. In schools, such individuals are usually selected as the "stars" on sociometric instruments involving their peers. They are elected to offices or selected naturally by their peers. Individuals and groups with problems turn to the social leaders for guidance and direction. Such leadership may be either emergent or appointive—i.e., an individual with the necessary traits and qualities may emerge to provide direction for a group or an individual may be elected or appointed to a position wherein his abilities can be used to control or influence.

Just as other exceptional talents—e.g., mathematical, musical, literary, artistic, etc.—must be developed through education and training, social leadership can and must be nurtured through a variety of experiences. The chapters which follow describe programs and procedures aimed at nurturing social and interpersonal leadership involving interaction among individuals and groups. Edward L. Thorndike once observed,"It is the great fortune of mankind that there is a substantial positive correlation between intelligence and morality, including good-will toward one's fellows."* The programs described here assume that while such a correlation may exist, it can be substantially improved through programs specifically designed to nurture social leadership as an area of specialized talent.

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* Edward L. Thorndike, "How May We Improve the Selection, Training and Life-Work of Leaders?" *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 40 (April 1939), p. 596.

PREFACE

This handbook is a compilation of presentations and papers on leadership. The subject of leadership is related to the education of gifted and talented students and, in particular, development of their potential in the leadership aspect of giftedness.

One of the authors, Paul Judkins, was a consultant at the Institute on New Dimensions — The Gifted in Leadersip, February 13-17, 1977, Corpus Christi, Texas. The other writers have contributed chapters on the areas of leadership training with which they are familiar, representing the Center for Creative Leadership, the Interdisciplinary Center for Creative Studies, National Manpower Institute, and the Prudential Insurance Company of America. Permission to reprint ***Leadership: A Survey of Literature*** was gratefully received from the Los Angeles Unified School District.

How can leadership be taught? This tantalizing, complex question has been addressed in this publication.

Barbara Johnson
Publications Editor

CHAPTER I: CERTAIN CRITERIA LEAD TOWARD LEADERSHIP

by Paul A. Judkins, Jr.
Director, Operations and Planning
Rural Health Association
Farmington, Maine

You will certainly not be able to take the lead in all things yourself, for to one man a god has given deeds of war, and to another the dance, to another the lyre and song, and in another wide-sounding Zeus puts a good mind.

Homer
The Iliad, Book XIII

The chapter which follows attempts to isolate certain criteria which when present in an individual seem to enhance that individual's ability to exert leadership. Whether it is possible to identify leadership in an embryonic state still remains a question in the writer's mind. At least an element of doubt as to whether it is the "times that make the man . . ." is certainly present.

Any teacher, or for that matter any observer, of a school at recess can immediately spot these youngsters who because of athletic, or other skills seem to assume positions of leadership among their peers. We would certainly advance the theory that possession of skills or experience to a degree greater than his or her peers sharply improves the chances of a child's becoming a leader.

Eight years of experience in attempting to discover latent leadership talent among adults under the age of thirty-five proved repeatedly that the considered bestowment of the accolade "leader" on almost any human being could change that person's self-image—if only temporarily. Until the individual's environment deflates that image, the person acts in the confident manner we as society expect in our leadership. No observable factor other than selection as a "leader" by a group which presumably had some skill in such selection could account for the behavior change.

The lesson is a simple but most important one. Expect all students—even all people—to be more than they think they can be.

The word leadership, like so many in our imprecise language, varies as to explicit meaning in accordance with the perceptions and experience of the individual(s) using the term.

A leader by our definition is a person with a following and a cause. The group may follow the leader because it believes in the person who leads or because it believes in the cause espoused. The latter group, in order to become long-term members of the following must sooner or later join the ranks of the former. It then also believes in the person.

People, including leaders, change in light of experience. Causes change more. Furthermore, no cause is broadly adopted without compromise.

Potential for Making a Difference

In the ensuing paragraphs we will take a retrospective look at 126 people from northern New England and the Canadian Province of New Brunswick who were chosen as Fellows in a Ford Foundation Project called the Leadership Development Program (LDP). The program sought to identify persons working in education and community development with the potential for making a difference in their environment. It then attempted to assist in the developing of the skills for so doing.

In general, we sought to link the Fellows with those who were successful practioners of the philosophy or practice which the Fellows deemed appropriate for their home setting. For example a Passamaquoddy Indian concerned with the development of tourism as an economic benefit to his tribe spent a year working with those tribes—the South Florida Miccosukee, the Mescalaro Apache and Yakima—who had tourist enterprises, and with the Indian desk of the U.S. Department of Commerce.

No two programs were identical and there were very few shared experiences. That is to say, we didn't send several Fellows to the same mentor or program site. All 126 were not "rousing successes." Many would deem themselves anything but successful and for a whole host of reasons, including poor selection. While all were thought to be leaders by the committee which selected them, the writer has arbitrarily narrowed the 126 LDP participants to ten who would be thought of as leaders by an objective observer. They occupy positions from which they can exert leadership and do so expertly; they have a following, a cause, and most of the characteristics outlined below.

These ten were then examined for personality traits which they seem to share in common. The group of ten includes two women and three native Americans; the rest are white, male. Before we discuss the specific characteristics, however, we should make the following general observations:

1) While most leaders possess a poise and confidence which may be thought of as charisma, the individual liked by everyone is probably less leader than diplomat. Maintenance of the status quo demands diplomacy, change demands leadership. Leaders do, of course, exercise diplomacy. The point to be made is simply that an individual liked by the vast majority of his or her peers cannot be considered a leader on that basis alone.

2) In searching out latent and potential or embroyonic leadership, do not rely on first impressions. Keep the negative impressions to yourself until the positive attributes are developed more fully.

3) While the same leadership characteristics may be present in individuals from differing cultural backgrounds, these characteristics may manifest themselves in widely differing manner. An appropriate illustration of this observation is the oft-repeated story of attempting to assess a Southern black youngster's intelligence quotient on the basis of answers to questions about "New England-style" village greens. Attitudes, like personal characteristics, are products of

environment and culture and must be evaluated within the experiential framework of that environment/culture.

The Leadership Development Program embraced and attempted to nurture leadership in three geographic areas of the United States. Southeastern Fellows were largely black; Southwestern, Chicano; and Northeastern, white or Indian.

Specific Characteristics

Let us consider those specific characteristics which some or all of the ten leaders shared. As you consider, attempt to evaluate leaders you know and children you suspect of possessing leadership potential in terms of the following characteristics:

1) All ten of this select group exhibit more than average "native" intelligence. That is not to say that all would score highly in conventional IQ testing although many would. All have a firm grasp on the data base of their surroundings. All seem to have some sense of what they do not know and what they need to know.

2) For the young leaders in the classroom, intelligence is not the possession of a wealth of factual materials but rather the ability to use that factual material for the purpose of deduction and decision making.

3) Futher, intelligence is knowing when additional facts are needed to reach a decision, knowing where to find them and possessing enough curiosity or drive to seek them out.

4) All ten of our group are able to deal with abstract concepts, an extension undoubtedly of their powers of deductive reasoning.

5) All are able to project themselves into the future determining possibilities on the basis of experience to date.

6) The student who has mastered the concept of time, who understands "tomorrow," "next week," or "the day before yesterday" and who can imagine or remember being in these time frames has probably made a beginning. "Time" and relationship to it differs drastically with culture, however, and the perceptive teacher must not interpret responses solely on the basis of that teacher's experience.

7) The ability to project oneself into the future, or to predict operational demands of a future period, plays a significant role in planning, setting objectives, etc., i.e., these tasks which all leaders must perform if they are to have a sense of where they are going and how they are to get there.

8) Most of our ten leaders possess an apparent ability to operate without the security of a strict schedule or to adapt quickly to a different schedule.

9) All Leadership Development Program Fellows were encouraged in planning their program year to take full advantage of the situation, to experience different environments, to leave the familiar behind, and to build flexibility into their schedule.

The first weeks of living in a completely new environment without needing to report for work at a specific time or without a prescribed work load to accomplish proved to be a very stressful period, although not originally planned to be so. Some individuals never fully adjusted, most did so by imposing a new schedule and new objectives on themselves. The time period within which they were able to adapt and feel comfortable with the new situation was notably abbreviated with the majority of our ten subjects. I considered this a leadership characteristic.

The student in school is, or should be, continually confronted by situations which are beyond the span of his or her experience. The ability to adapt to the new situation is observable and an important indicator. The quality may well be learned as the result of past success and of a learning environment which understands the need to fail.

10) For the Indian members of our ten leader group (and among other observed ethnic leaders), "adaptability" appears to take on an added dimension. Each of them seemingly possess the ability to assume the mannerisims of the society in which he or she is functioning (unless, of course, the situation calls for confrontation). An example might be that the white, dominant society tends to assume an air of assurance and outgoing behavior which the Indian leader will adopt.

11) A strong sense of loyalty or responsibility also characterizes the majority of our leaders. The recipients of that loyalty are in some cases identifiable as individuals. Loyalty to a region, to a people, or to an ideal is also manifested.

The Leadership Development Program sought to identify and develop leadership in and for rural areas. Its literature made clear that those who administered the program anticipated that individuals selected for fellowships would return to the rural region from which each was selected. At the same time it was stated clearly that the program had no right to, nor any intention of, restricting an individual's mobility. Despite many job offers which must have seemed tempting, all ten of our leader group returned. This is particularly remarkable in light of the fact that most of them had no jobs awaiting their return.

When questioned about their reasons for returning the answers took different forms. Some indicated a sense of "obligation" to the program which had supported them or, phrased another way, to the people who had selected them, others, particularly Indian Fellows, an "obligation" to help their people. For the rest the "obligation" centered around region which seemed also to include people as well as geography.

The word "obligation" in the previous paragraph is enclosed in quotes since the word doesn't really seem to fit. It is true that each felt obligated but felt so without the implication that they would prefer to do something else. A combination of the words loyalty/responsibility seems best to describe the personal quality exhibited. For the classroom teacher attempting to discern leadership qualities in the student body, loyalty/responsibility may be difficult to

separate from peer group identification. All the "Sweat Hogs" of ***Welcome Back, Kotter*** may be loyal to the group. The leader(s) of the group combine the quality with a sharpened sense of responsibility (or of courage, or of dedication).

Prior to organizing the Fellowship Year for the Leadership Development Program recipients, each was interviewed in company with the spouse or a close friend. The purpose was to determine the direction the year should take, to obtain some indication of possible experiences which could help in developing skills or filling in the background of the Fellow.

A standard question in the interview was centered around what the Fellow perceived to be his or her personal strengths and weaknesses. After some discussion designed to eliminate the false humility or the reluctance to "bare one's soul," the spouse or friend was asked whether the Fellow's self-appraisal was an accurate one. For most of the Fellows this proved to be a rather difficult task. Strengths seemed to be easier to perceive than weaknesses; we believe this to be true because the strengths had been reinforced in more positive fashion.

12) Among these on whom we've pinned the leader label, however, a self-administered personality assessment seems a far more common practice. There is a particularly heightened sense of personal shortcomings stemming, apparently, from a conscious and positive effort to minimize these shortcomings. To illustrate, one leader felt, and his wife concurred, that he was often so immersed in his own thought processes that others around him translated his preoccupation as stand-offishness. He now attempts—not altoghether successfully—to concentrate on what is taking place around him.

Another expressed an opinion that he dominated the discussion in meetings he attended. To counteract his self-perceived fault he now pauses consciously to assess whether the words he wishes to say need to be said.

As this chapter is being written the thought occurs that more of the perceived shortcomings dealt with the leader's relationship with other people than with lack of a specific skill of of academic backgrounds, etc. The developing sense of interpersonal relationships could be significant if we are to assume that leaders by definition need followers.

There is a touch of irony in the fact that while the members of our group were more aware of their shortcomings than most they also were imbued with more self-confidence. Where confidence stops and courage begins is a point worthy of some exploration also. Tradition has it that success—or the proper attitude about failure—permits one to move down the paths of new experience confident in one's ability to cope with whatever comes along.

Success must certainly play its part. Experience teaches also that the human mind tends to make anticipation either brighter than, or darker than, the actual event. There is, nevertheless, that gnawing

feeling in the pit of our stomach, before the potential confrontation, which tries to tell us to avoid the situation. Confidence may inspire rational response; courage, of a sort, triggers the action and carries one to and through the "fray."

13) In identifying the potential leader, we look for the self-confidence and the demonstrated ability to adjust to new situations and to cope with adversity. We must look somewhat beyond that to discover if there is indeed a courageous quality which can be identified. Perseverance appears often to be coupled with courage in our ten subjects. Their willingness to keep at an assigned task, to be struck down only to rise and start again often defies logic.

14) A sense of social conscience permeates our leadership group. Among the group, the community activities—Kiwanis, community action, church, etc.—often provide the opportunity for use of leadership skills. The work or professional situation may actually deny that opportunity. One must question whether the pleasure caused by success in new experiences and the often attendant ego stroking may give rise to the social conscience and the opportunity it affords for recognition.

Whether or not success and social conscience correlate there does appear to be a "need to be needed" among these leaders. Is there, perhaps, a pleasure in being commended for one's "martyrdom" which may transcend the pain of the ordeal?

While the tone of the preceding paragraph may appear more cynical than necessary it is observably true that leaders must possess enough ego to presume they are pursuing the right course for the needs of their following. When to the ego is added a cause, our leader is off and running.

15) If, as we speculated earlier, leaders are more people-oriented than the population at large it may account for an indication, at least among our group, that leaders are intolerant of themselves and the limitations of their surroundings but highly tolerant of those around them. The impatience which led our leader to embrace a cause for change, often with great fervor and perseverance, contrasts sharply with the patience and tolerance displayed to the followers.

The teacher should probably look for the youngster who seems to like people and who most of his companions seem to like. Other observable characteristics such as perseverance with a difficult task and self-awareness will separate the happy-go-lucky. Sensitivity to the needs of others would seemingly make our leader more aware of the barbs thrown his or her way by those who oppose the cause or the changes it brings.

Our group, however, appears to have developed a mechanism which permits each to put such jibes in perspective. At the very least they have determined that the cause is more important than the jibes, or at best, developed an internal accommodation which ignores them.

16) Of all personality characteristics perhaps the most "contagious" is enthusiasm. The leader who does not bring an element of enthusiasm to the cause will not greatly advance that cause. Conversely, enthusiasm can often overcome a lack of other desirable characteristics and is, perhaps the easiest of all characteristics to identify.

17) The ability to clearly express ideas in either oral or written form is a recognized leadership characteristic. Few will long follow a leader whose ideas aren't understood. In its highest form the ability to express ideas takes on inspirational qualities, e.g., Churchill's wartime speeches and writings. At least it results in an understanding on which to base allegiance.

As some composite paragon of leadership emerges from our observations several apparent contradictions have emerged. We have discussed patience and impatience, sensitivity and insensitivity, ego and altruism. No teacher needs to be told that the human is a tremendously complex being nor that inconsistencies exist in all of us. Perhaps the leader has the ability to adapt to the contradictions, even to use them advantageously, in far greater degree than most.

Summary

There are in the characteristics discussed some more easily identified than others. Finding the student who almost everyone likes, who has a sense of future, who has courage, adaptability, enthusiasm, perseverance, or even patience is not an impossible task.

Loyalty, cause, intelligence, a social conscience, perspective, or the ability to express one's ideas may be effectively obscured by home environment, language, lack of opportunity, culture or myriad other factors. When you find the individual who possesses all these qualities, nurture that person and bring all your resources to bear on his or her development for you may have begun to solve the world's leadership problems.

Failing to discover such an individual, concentrate instead on those youngsters who have some or most of the desired qualities. In your search don't pass by that charge of yours about whom you have only a subjective feeling. Working with people is your specialty and no one yet has found a mechanical means for selection or identification of potential leadership more accurate than a people-oriented person. In other, more lucid words, don't overlook those positive "gut feelings"!

In support of your own perceptions we suggest you attempt to determine the degree to which each candidate possesses the following characteristics. The list is not exhaustive; in fact, it is only a beginning. Use your own powers of observation to add to it and perhaps, together, we will someday make the identfication of that elusive and badly-needed quality called leadership more a science than an art.

Our ten subjects possessed in varying degrees all of the following:

1. Intelligence and reasoning powers
2. Ability to deal with:

a. Abstract concepts
b. Futures and planning
c. Time constraints

3. Enthusiasm
4. Loyalty, responsibility
5. Adaptability
6. Patience with people, impatience with limitations
7. Knowledge of self
8. Perseverance
9. Courage
10. Self-confidence.

Finally, and at the risk of redundancy, expect them all to be leaders. Those who aren't may be better followers because you believed.

CHAPTER II: LEADING LEADERS

by James L. Olivero
Director, Nueva Learning Center
Hillsborough, California

The leadership potential that an individual has when he goes to school is snuffed out.
Harvey Sloane
Mayor, Louisville, Kentucky

What is leadership? Who are leaders? How are they identified? What kinds of program activities are appropriate for nurturing leadership potential? What qualities do teachers need to work with children who are leaders? These are the questions I will try to answer in this article—admittedly, not a small challenge!

Before responding to the onerous questions, let's take a look at the issue of leadership and why the topic is recently gaining considerable attention. A friend the other day remarked that the recent presidential-nominating conventions clearly illustrated the need for educators in our country to focus on leadership development as a top-priority. His point may or may not have been facetious.

Educators Must Give Attention

Without debating the opinion, it is logical leaders are necessary and if leadership is truly a learned quality, educators must give attention to those boys and girls who demonstrate this potential.

Perhaps the most recent emphasis on leadership came from the provocative, thorough, influential state of the art study sponsored by the United States Office of Education (USOE), ***Education of the Gifted and Talented***, 1971, which provided much valuable information in its two volumes. The report revealed, among other things, that opponents of special projects for the gifted charged—and many people felt rightly—that the typical focus of programs was too narrow. That is, the identified programs directed nearly all human and fiscal potential solely in the academic areas. The USOE study and the nationally-recognized authorities who contributed time, energy and effort to the production of the report called for an expanded definition of giftedness. Included under the talent umbrella were student characteristics such as creativity, problem-solving abilities, music and artistic talents, athletic abilities, and leadership potential. The report, indeed, legitimatized leadership as a viable, positive concern for educators.

Although the report has been available a number of years, historically there has been increased rhetoric on the subject but little in the way of substantive, program enhancement. The question, "Where do we begin?" has been a hurdle few people have jumped. As far as I've been able to determine,

only the state of Utah has offered fiscal assistance to generate data for future program development in leadership preparation. The answer to the "starting" question, according to the Utah people, is "to begin by beginning." This is wise counsel. Hopefully, this article will offer sufficient suggestions for those who consider leadership an important contribution to move from theory to practice.

Primary background data for this article comes from the following variety of sources: programs in Utah, professional literature available from ERIC* files, and research and development efforts at the Nueva Learning Center in Hillsborough, California.

According to the ***American Heritage Dictionary***, a **leader** is a person who leads others along a way—a guide. The definition makes no value judgments about whether the person is man or woman, white or black—or a representative from any particular ethnic or racial group—or who occupies a particular status position on the socio-economic spectrum, or a person who comes from a given religious affiliation. Neither does the definition state whether the leadership is directed toward good or bad objectives.

Identification Has Been a Problem

In short, many people have leadership potential. Why haven't more people been identified? And why, the corollary question might be, haven't programs been created to nurture the competency? Identification has been a problem, perhaps, because many educators have continued to search for sophisticated instruments—such as the IQ test(?)—to do the identification for them, especially when few, if any, such sophisticated tools exist.

Intuition seems to be a process most people consider too fuzzy to be accepted as an approved identification method. But can anyone deny that the four-year old black girl who has the entire neighborhood organized to produce the summer circus is a leader? Or how about the adolescent in juvenile hall who has organized the institution? This may be leadership in a negative direction, but certainly the behavior exhibited is consistent with the previous definition. Sometimes we know what is there, but without assessment instruments we avoid making decisions.

I offer three methods for identifying children with leadership potential: one approach for young children, another for early adolescents, and a third alternative for upper-secondary students. For the very young, simply ask! That is, ask parents about their children. Ask parents whether their children have demonstrated "take charge" (not bossy) responsibilities in their daily, neighborhood routines. Do older children look to the younger child for directions? Does the child have the "stick-to-itness" to take on complicated tasks and to work with others for the completion of the tasks?

Parents are excellent identifiers of student potential; some research literature regarding identification definitely confirms this fact. Unfortunately, too often pre-school questionnaires fail to gather data regarding the child's readiness for leadership.

At the early-adolescent-age level, socio-metric tools offer good information for the identification of student leaders. Eddie Myers at the Education

*Educational Resources Information Center

Research Council of America (ERCA) in Ohio has designed and tested socio-metric instruments which use student and teacher input for this purpose. Students and teachers at this level have an opportunity to observe students in action and, thereby, have knowledge on which to base their decisions. The socio-metric tools help those responding focus their answers. Questions such as, "If you were planning a (task), with whom would you choose to work?" and "If you had a major job to complete, whom would you like to have serve as your leader?" are examples of issues on which peer evaluations and teacher responses can be obtained.

Though there may be some discrepancies between student choices, there are many plausible explanations for this. Suffice it here to suggest that each set of responders brings a different perspective to the answers.

Inventory for Relevant Documentation

A useful instrument at the upper-secondary level is the Coopersmith ***Self-Esteem Inventory***. As with many instruments, there are those who swear by the tool while others negate the importance of the device. I don't fit into either of the armed polarized camps, but I do believe—based upon an analysis of the data in Coopersmith's ***Antecedents of Behavior***—the Inventory can provide relevant documentation.

We have used both the Coopersmith tool and a modification of the ERCA socio-metric instrument at the Nueva Learning Center and are making some final judgments about their applicability as screening aids. Initially, we worked off the tools to see if the students we identified by observation as leaders were also identified by the paper and pencil procedures. Two specific examples come clearly to mind. One was a young man who came from the local juvenile hall and another was a student who had moved to California from a Chicago ghetto.

From our observations, we knew other children looked up to the two cited; indeed, sometimes other students would look for approval from the leaders before progressing with their purposeful activities. Although we were somewhat skeptical of the identification tools, upon administration of them we confirmed our opinions of the two leaders as well as identified three other students we hadn't thought about until we received the feedback data. These latter three students, two girls and a boy, were much more subtle in the ways they influenced other students. We probably would have ignored their contributions if we hadn't received the clues from the Coopersmith and ERCA socio-metric instruments to look more closely.

Undoubtedly, one reason lawmakers have failed to provide funding for leadership through legislation for the gifted and talented is because finite instrumentation has not yet been developed and/or accepted. For some reason, with all the imperfections of IQ tests and presumably because a "numerical score" can be determined, both legislators and educators have accepted the scores as indicative guides for the identification of the academically talented. Not so for leadership! Summarily, we need to make more serious excursions into the field to illustrate the importance of the special talent, to obtain the necessary research for generating appropriate identification tools. Unfortunately, we are caught up in a negative chicken-and-egg cycle; which

comes first, the identification or the program? To put an end to the dilemma, simultaneous forays into both arenas are required.

Leadership Program Options Worth Trying

Again, let's think of the students at different levels of growth and development; at the various levels, different characteristics of leadership can be enhanced. Oversimplifying the matter, things to be taught in leadership education classes can be included under three headings: attitudes, knowledge, skills.

One attitude to be concerned about at the early childhood level is that of human service; that is, the leader should know it is acceptable to be of service to other people, to lend a hand in time of need, to be accepting of people who—by one criterion or another—may not have many things going for them. Many school activities are built upon the business-world, cut-throat, competition philosophy; i.e., win at nearly whatever cost. This need not be so—especially as we project the future and become cognizant of the close interpersonal relationships that will be demanded of people for survival.

One program option for achieving the desirable attitude of human service is practiced at the Nueva Learning Center. It is called, "Three Before Me!" The main idea here is to have students ask questions of three others before the unresolved matter is taken to the teacher. Not only does this procedure enable the teacher to eliminate many redundant responses from her—and as a result have greater time for students who need more personalized attention—but the students learn it is a positive value to both seek and give help.

I was in a first grade classroom recently when two students had a minor disagreement. First graders have a tendency to run directly to the teacher to get arbitration. In this case, though, the students went to another student for advice on reconciling the matter. While they didn't arrive at a reasonable solution with the first helper, they got an acceptable alternative from their second intervener. It seems to me there are some important learnings coming from all this, when the teacher helps to set the stage to let the action happen, such as:

- Children learn they have considerable responsibility for their own actions.
- Children learn they can help one another with their own decision-making power.
- Children learn there can be situations where compromise works better than the winner/loser resolution process.

This is an abbreviated list of potentials. When the preceding are achieved, the Three-Before-Me option is worth implementing. Being helpful to others doesn't eliminate positive competition—the Three-Before-Me approach gives students a different perspective on which to base later actions, as compared to the competitive model.

At the middle and upper secondary levels, one attitude of value worth developing is that of integrity. In a recent article by Henry O. Golightly, titled "Success Depends on Character," twelve top executives were interviewed and

asked what qualities they thought were essential for leaders. The executives stressed integrity over intelligence, steadfastness over skill, and guts over guile.

H.A. Shaub, president of Campbell Soup Company, suggested the most essential attitude to develop is that of positive "character". A leader with positive character expresses this attitude by an intelligent aggressiveness, a desire to get things done, a vigorous and enterprising attitude toward solving problems, and a willingness to make decisions and act, and accept the consequences of those actions. If all this is so, how can a person learn the traits?

A particularly powerful program for older students is the mentor option Arrangements for this option are made for a student to be assigned to a business executive, community worker, politician, ***et al***, to learn "at the feet of the incumbent." Students gain a first-hand understanding about the complexities of our society and how things happen—or don't happen. Nearly always, civic leaders are very willing to accept responsibility for the mentor relationship; too often, they aren't asked.

What Skills Are Appropriate For Leaders?

Since very few things happen by chance, potential leaders need to learn a variety of skills as well as how and when the skills can be called upon to provide direction for self and others.

At the early level the teacher should do whatever is possible to offer "total group" experiences. Ways need to be found for the entire class to be involved in the projects they undertake. This often includes such things as the preparation for a total class (or school) Thanksgiving luncheon, a class party, a transportation unit, and so forth. As the activity unfolds, the teacher can help with specific skills such as planning (with appropriate assignment and responsibility sheets), brainstorming (helping the children consider alternatives), deciding (agreeing on processes by which decisions will be made), and evaluating (looking at the positive outcomes of the collaborative effort as well as ways improvements can be made). At this developmental level, students should become well-enough versed with the skills that they can verbalize the processes and know the appropriate times for calling the skills into use. Clearly, the teacher needs to provide initial leadership while at the same time having the ability to back-off as students take on more and more responsibility.

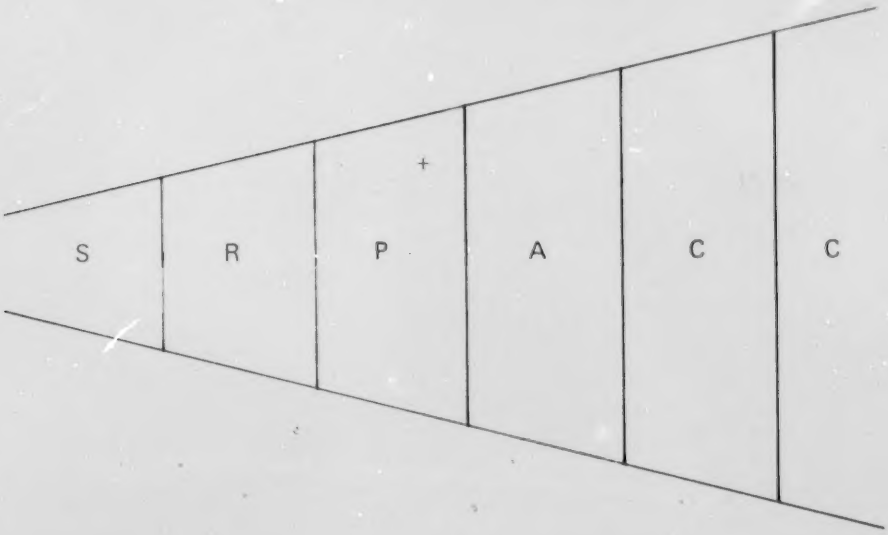
Older children will be able to learn more sophisticated skills. At this developmental level, they should work not only on the planning-action evaluation skills but also learn the skills for solving personal and emotional problems of self and others. In short, they can learn a scientific process for understanding and responding to the affective relationships within which they find themselves.

One curriculum for meeting this demand has been developed at the Nueva Learning Center. This curriculum has some sixty-four discrete lessons which help learners determine personal ***modus operandi*** as well as strategies for changing when results aren't especially positive.

The lessons have a format which includes both affective and cognitive components as well as follow-up activities. For example, each formal lesson is introduced by a game and/or a structured activity, e.g., trust walk, fear-in-

the hat game, telephone gossip chain, and so forth, and then each activity is processed by analyzing what happened during the experiential period. Process questions are included on the lesson design to help the teacher guide discussions. Homework may be assigned as a follow-up to any given lesson or as a data-gathering introduction to a subsequent lesson.

The overall process taught through the lessons and the interactions of the students and teachers is called the "Trumpet." Briefly, the Trumpet contains the elements illustrated in the diagram below.



TRUMPET PROCESS

The "S" in the Trumpet refers to the many stimuli that crash in on peoples' lives, while the "R" refers to responses given to different stimuli. The "P" stands for pattern. That is, if a person responds in the same way fairly frequently to the same stimuli, a pattern of behavior emerges. The "+" in the pattern element signifies those behaviors which are positive while the "-" signifies those patterns which are negative.

When one recognizes negative behavior, additional alternatives are needed; this is signified by the "A." The first "C" stands for choice; individuals need to try on new behaviors, knowing more than one behavior response is possible. Finally, the last "C" signifies consequences, i.e., what are the potential consequences of any behavior modes chosen?

Although there are other curricula for this purpose, I happen to feel quite positively about ***Self-Science: The Subject Is Me***, written by Karen Stone and Harold O. Dillehunt. The curriculum, in short, helps students learn a cognitive process for dealing with their affective states. (Let's hear it for educational jargon!) In understandable language, the course helps students identify their personal value and the patterns they have for responding to various stimuli. (That's understandable language?)

The curriculum extends the norms of the classroom in the following ways:

Traditional Norms	Self-Science Norms
Learning about the world is the legitimate subject for school.	Learning about oneself (thoughts, feelings, and behavior) is legitimate in school.
Remembering, planning, and interpreting are important.	Experiencing the present moment, the here and now of teachers and students is important.
Learning words and concepts and how to negotiate the world of things and ideas is important.	Learning words and concepts for negotiating one's emotions is important.
Critical judgment and evaluation (and earned respect for performance) are central in the learning process.	Non-judgmental acceptance and respect is central to the process of individual personal growth.
Talking, thinking, and reading about experiences and ideas are central in the learning process	Experiencing one's self and one's surroundings is central to personally-important learning.
Well thought-out expressions about the subject matter is valued in the learning process.	Appropriate non-maniuplative disclosure of thoughts and feelings about self and others is valued and facilitates personal growth in self and others.

The traditional classroom legitimatizes the study of the academics; self-science legitimatizes the study of the self. If it is important to learn 2 + 2, who discovered America, and about outer space, I'm equally biased that students should also have the opportunity to discover their inner space—under the guidance of a qualified professional. Although other curricula, e.g., values clarification, transactional analysis, human development program, have been developed for purposes somewhat similar to ***Self-Science***, I believe the program written by Dillehunt and Stone is superior.

Training Packages Available

Older children in leadership development classes can learn such functional skills as force field analysis, the delphi-technique, prioritizing alternatives, multiple decision-making models, and other systematic plans for determining **why**, **what**, **how**, **when**? Numerous programs and approaches are available for teaching these skills. For example, although some modifications are necessary, the training packages available from Project Leadership (Association of California School Administrators, ACSA, in Burlingame, California) offer many growth possibilities.

ACSA has developed a series of 18 Presenters Guides for Educational leaders including such topics as:

Shared Decision Making
Problem Solving – Delphi
Problem Solving – Force Field Analysis
Personal Program Planning
Grievance Procedures
Leadership Styles
Time Management

Each of the Presenters Guides has a smiliar format and each program is contracted around a two-to-three hour workshop timeline. The package includes:

An Instructor's Manual
Handouts
Transparencies (for use by the instructor)
Simulation Exercises

Nearly anyone who takes the time to study the materials can teach them to others. Although these are designed for school principals and other administrators, the ideas in the packages are directly modifiable to student classrooms for the person who wants to invest the time and energy necessary. ACSA recognizes that schools will be no better than the leadership in them and has, therefore, tried to work at the problem head-on. The same effort needs to be made within the broader context of our society.

Undoubtedly, leadership is both a science and an art—and as such, it's possible to nurture the needed scientific skills while at the same time helping potential leaders learn the knowledge base which gives them the ability to provide leadership in desirable directions. A person may have a wide assortment of leadership potential but if that potential isn't used well, the results may be zero—14 x 0 = 0.

What kinds of knowledge bases are pertinent? At all levels of growth and development the leaders need certain survival skills. Among these survival skills are the basics—the ***three R's***. In addition, a survival skill that is important but infrequently recognized, is that of relaxation. Schools need to help student leaders learn to relax, to unwind. At the early childhood level this might involve a program of sustained silent reading whereby students have a certain portion of each day reserved for their personal reading and study. Older children may get into yoga or transcendental meditation. Relaxation techniques often add to the students' knowledge base on the one hand and help them become more efficient with competencies on the other.

Student leaders at the middle and upper elementary levels should have the opportunity to engage in studies about the future. The future holds a myriad of fascinating challenges. Leaders of tomorrow need to begin considering such real issues as projections of over-population, pollution constraints, energy crises, changes in the work ethic, and potential consequences of the ever-diminishing, international isolationism. If it is true that most of our current leaders invest energies in ways to find solutions to old problems, new leaders need to find new solutions to complex problems we are only beginning to consider. As Robert Greenleaf in his book, ***The Servant as***

Leader, says:

> The leader needs two intellectual abilities that are usually not assessed in an academic way: (s)he needs to have a sense for the unknowable and be able to forsee the unforseeable. The leader knows some things and forsees some things which those (s)he is presuming to lead do not know or forsee as clearly. This is partly what gives the leader his(her) 'lead,' what puts the person out ahead and qualifies him(her) to show the way.

What Teacher Qualifications Are Desirable?

Without doubt, teachers working with leaders have their work cut out for them; few if any have been taught—in their teacher education experiences—to work with that evasive characteristic in people defined as leadership potential. Understandably, this calls for considerable staff development in most school settings, as described below.

If students are to enhance their potential, one way is to find teachers who model the desirable behavior expected. Modeling is perhaps the best instructional strategy of them all; students learn from the positive examples of their teachers.

Teachers, certainly, should be knowledgeable about leadership. They should demonstrate an awareness of what the professional literature has to say about leaders and their qualities. Additionally, teachers should study the future and have at their command teaching-learning strategies for helping students become familiar with those disciplines associated with studies of the future.

Clearly, teachers need to be knowledgeable about the skills—such as inquiry and problem-solving approaches—they can teach to the students. More important than teaching the skills, though, is the teacher's responsibility to help students learn in practical situations how to apply the newly acquired tools. A variety of opportunities can be arranged for this purpose, e.g., school pride projects, projects to celebrate learning, and human service activities. Each of these suggestions needs further elaboration and development but the umbrella ideas provide a springboard for action.

In Retrospect

I argue that we have too long neglected leadership as a viable subject for teaching-learning. The consequences of all this on the whole range of our complex institutional life, in which we are all enmeshed, is devastating. One may analyze, criticize, protest, beat upon the system, castigate the holders of power, but most of these efforts are futile if there are not, somewhere within the structures of our educational institutions, persons with the will and the competence and the vision to lead to better performance as servants of society. Our societal institutions can be circumscribed by law and pressured into some kind of conformity by criticism from the outside, but they can be built to serve the populations for which they were established only by strong, ethical leadership operating from within.

Who is preparing our next generation of leaders, our insitution builders? Are we?

CHAPTER III: MORE THAN A STUDENT: DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL IN YOUTH

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Leadership is one of those things you don't know you need until you don't have it.
Louis Masotti, Political Science Department
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Creating leadership development opportunities for youth demands risk-taking, just as leadership itself does. To many, the very idea of turning youth loose in our community institutions where they might learn to exercise real responsibility, where their actions have consequences for others, represents irresponsibility. We are uncertain as to what youth participation of this nature means for the institutions in which youth become involved or what it means for youth themselves. While business and labor might agree that youth should have access to roles which will enable them "to grow up right," they are unenthusiastic towards programs representing any risk to production or profits, job security, or wages. Parents, educators and other advocates of youth, while wanting to increase youth opportunity, are equally wary of exposing young people to forces which may prove unresponsive to their needs or have negative impact upon their development. From both points of view, the potential exists for both good and bad results.

Not Like School Lunches or English Grammar

Of course, the idea is not to turn youth loose, but to create constructive opportunities throughout the community which provide young people an awareness of leadership responsibilities and a chance to develop the skills necessary to meet them. The trouble is that we can't serve up these intangibles the way we do school lunches or English grammar. At a time when there is real concern that the youth don't even have access to experiences leading to normal adulthood, how can leadership development be positively approached?

First of all, it is necessary to address the fact that many of our approaches to youth problems are negative. We commit sizeable national resources in an attempt to figure out why youth drop out of school, are unemployed, become alcoholics or drug addicts, commit felonies, or vandalize school property. By contrast, a more positive approach is the Strategy for Youth Development implemented by the Office of Youth Development (OYD) in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

While our values might prompt us to support the development of youth leadership potential, our practices deny most young people access to any responsible experience in decision making, problem solving, or conflict

resolution. By requiring longer and longer periods of classroom schooling, society has separated youth from the mainstream of work and life responsibilities. Increasingly, we are realizing that this process leaves many youth unprepared to meet demands basic to adult life, much less those of leadership.

The issue, as discussed by the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee and others, is not only that the school environment is ill-equipped to adequately prepare youth for adulthood, but that the other institutions of the community have passed on too many of their traditional responsibilities to the schools. Movements such as vocational education, cooperative education, and career education are representative of school-based attempts to prepare youth better for coping with future work responsibilities. Significantly, programs in each of these areas incorporate school access to community resources.

Passive Student Role Places Limit on Opportunity

As important as these efforts are to integrate school and work institutions towards better youth preparation, we have to go a lot further in advocating leadership development in youth. Just as in the classroom, youth participation and planning is unfortunately missing from many of these programs. No matter what the setting or sponsorship, the passive student role places real limits on opportunities for youth experience in accepting responsibility for themselves and others. We are doing young people no favor in prescribing a cooperative community approach, if we also perpetuate their student role as passive consumers of a service. Much more than reinvolving community institutions in youth's schooling, we will have to re-introduce youth participation within those institutions.

In trying to find out why most youth turn out OK, those who formulated the Youth Development Strategy isolated three main elements:

- Most youth recognize early on that they have a stake in society and that they have something to gain by following the ground rules. Youth who have access to personally-gratifying and socially-desirable roles have a stake in society.
- By and large, young people are seen positively by friends, relatives, and teachers. Access to positive roles are denied young people who are labelled negatively ("egghead," "drop-out," "trouble-maker") by peers or authority figures.
- Youth are made to feel meaningful personal control over the direction of their own lives as integrated members of the community. Failing this, feelings of alienation and of no longer having a stake in society are likely to produce negative outcomes.

The Office of Youth Development advocates youth participation as a means for young people to acquire these experiences which provide for healthy youth development. Presently, the Office is preparing a series of publications called the *Source Catalog on Youth Participation* which offers guidance on youth participation models, resources for youth participation, and training for youth participation.[2]

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2. Numbered references can be found on page 24 at the end of this chapter.

In addition to those of the Office of Youth Development, other federal efforts are incorporating youth participation opportunities. In Philadelphia, the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (NIAAA) funds a "Student Demonstration Project for Alcoholism Prevention" where inner-city high school youth who have high status among their peers are developed as key youth sources of alcohol abuse information. After completion of an eight-week summer work program, the youths are matched with college students and serve as tutors and counselors for younger students.

The National Endowment for the Humanities, through its Youthgrants program, makes small grants available for projects in which young people carry the main responsibility for design and implementation. The program enables youth to independently develop their interest in the humanities as individuals or in groups, with or without academic affiliation. In the past, high school-age youth have received grants to produce a 30-minute film exploring the relationships between schools and the communities they serve, to conduct a study of the underground railroad in Illinois, and to draw up a guidebook of hometown architecture for fellow students.[9]

Postive Roles Other than "Studenthood"

At the federal level, questions are being raised as to the kinds and quality of youth participation which should be encouraged or required. In tackling the large policy implications of youth participation, a conceptual framework is now being developed by the Interagency Panel for Research and Development on Adolescense.* The Panel, a vehicle for cooperative research planning among 23 member federal agencies and departments (the OYD and NIAAA among them), has taken on the issue of youth participation out of concern that youth be involved in positive roles other than, and in addition to, "studenthood." The research goal is towards documentation of the belief that participation contributes to a more healthy youth transition to adulthood.

The Panel views youth participation as a process, not an outcome, and has focused upon five contexts of youth participation: the family, school, workplace, community, and health care. One of the factors central to the panel's framework on youth participation involves the different modes of youth participation and the positive or negative impact of each. In theory and practice, the Panel finds that the modes of youth participation take the following three forms: the "youth-controlled mode" where youth make decisions independent of adult leadership, the "adult-required mode" where youth participation is required for the maintenance of some community institution, and the "youth-negotiated mode" where the extent of youth authority is negotiated with the sponsoring adults.

The working document [4] which develops this framework cautions that whether the behavioral consequences of participation are viewed as positive or negative, good or bad, is a matter of value judgment. By extension, it is

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*Under the auspices of the Interagency Panel, an information storage and retrieval system for federal grants and contracts regarding research and development in adolescense is maintained by the Social Research Group (SRG) (George Washington University at 2401 Virginia Ave., Washington, D.C. 20037). For a modest fee, SRG can produce a print-out listing federal projects relating to any topic on adolescense, and a one page abstract describing those projects of particular interest.

probable that the behaviors viewed as identifying leadership potential, or the lack of it, are also a matter of value judgment. It is exactly this question of values which challenges the creation of special opportunities in leadership development for those identified as being gifted or talented. As advocates for gifted and talented education are well aware, the argument for special public support for those presumed to have a better start to begin with is often perceived as flying in the face of our equalitarian values on education. In rebuttal, Sydney P. Marland, then Assistant Secretary for Education, made the eloquent case before the Nationwide Invitational Conference on the Education of the Gifted that democracy does not imply raising, lowering, or containing all people at one mean level of mediocrity. Slowly, public education is accepting its responsibility to provide not only for the mentally and physically handicapped but also for the high-ability youth whose gifts or talents are handicapped by antagonism or neglect.

However, democracy puts a different question to the matter of who should have participatory experiences towards leadership development, than it does for the cause of those who should receive encouragement in developing high-academic ability, superior psychomotor skills or rare artistic talent. Participation contributes to the capabilities of ***all*** youth in creating their "own destiny in community with others." Justifiably, youth participation advocates in the Office of Youth Development and elsewhere, feel strongly that participatory roles should not be created only for those who exhibit the "right" behaviors or qualities, however they be defined. Of course, it is just as valid that youth participation efforts involve gifted and talented young people as it is that they do not exclude all others.

Gifted Children Help Administer Workshop

While public decision makers grapple with an understanding of those national policies and practices which will allow for positive and accessible youth participation roles, young people and their advocates at the local level have been creating their own means to fill this need. Typically, these efforts rely on resources from many different community institutions. In Oakland, New Jersey, the "Saturday Workshop" supplements school curriculum by offering courses in everything of special interest to bright youngsters pre-school to high school age. School teachers, parents, and other community members are all part of the "Saturday Workshop" teaching staff. Sponsored by the Gifted Child Society, a nonprofit parent's organization, the "Saturday Workshop" has strong youth participation aspects. Students given written evaluation of teacher performance, have a voice in the selection of courses to be offered, and take part in deliberations on proposed changes in policy.

The National Commission on Resources for youth, a unique nonprofit organization based in New York City, has offered direct support and assistance to local youth participation projects since 1967. The Commission serves as a clearinghouse on youth participation by disseminating descriptions of hundreds of youth participation projects, preparing printed and audio-visual how-to materials, and developing model youth participation programs. One of the Commission's better known publications, ***New Roles for Youth In the School and the Community***, describes more than 70 successful projects where youth have taken on constructive roles as curriculum builders, teachers, community problem solvers, and resource builders for other youth. This year

the Commission will be devoting some of its efforts to youth participation programs that involve gifted and talented youth[7], under a grant from the U.S. Office of Education.

One institutional context for youth participation and youth leadership which deserves at least a brief mention here is that of the school. The first place young people should be able to learn the meaning of leadership responsibility is in the conduct of their own education. Denied any meaningful participation in the schools, many youth are discouraged from learning to exercise those personal responsibilities which they have towards their education. The lesson young people do learn from this treatment is how to live with forced passivity. However, alternatives have been developed in the public schools for constructive youth participation in selecting and designing individual courses and developing community learning opportunities within the school curriculum. Metro High School in Chicago is one well-known example of students being involved in decision making regarding school policy. Other examples are being studied and disseminated by the Office of Youth Development and the National Commission on Resources for Youth.

"The National Student Symposium on Education of Gifted and Talented," sponsored by a number of interested organizations, plus the American Association for Gifted Children, and the Office of Gifted and Talented in the U.S. Office of Education, brought twenty gifted and talented high school students together in 1975 for a series of three meetings so that they might write about their concerns regarding education. The young people addressed their remarks to other gifted and talented students but with the hope that educators will be reading over their shoulders. Personal narrations were written on how it feels to be involved in the present education process, on areas which should be changed, and on examples of how these youth have created educational opportunities of their own. What became evident throughout the Symposium is that these youth acknowledge their own responsibilities towards their education and are often times able to indicate where they need help in meeting them. The manuscript of the students' comments has been professionally edited and will soon be published by the Council for Exceptional Children located at 1920 Association Drive in Reston, Virginia.

In summary, leadership development in youth requires the creation of responsible youth participation roles within our community insitutions of education, work, government, and family. As with many other areas of social policy, it is from local experiences and practices that national directions will emerge. The present challenge is to develop a national youth policy framework that will enable the identification and furtherance of the most promising of local initiatives and ideas.

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CHAPTER IV: LEADERSHIP, THE GIFTED POPULATION AND THE CENTER FOR CREATIVE LEADERSHIP – A NETWORK SYSTEM

by Joelcira F. Cavedon
Educational Psychologist

You know what makes leadership? It is the ability to get men to do what they don't want to do, and like it.
Harry Truman

"Leadership is one of the most magnetic words in the English language. . . There is a universal interest in leaders and what makes them tick. . . [20] For the past half century, psychologists and sociologists have been increasingly active in attempting to introduce the methods and knowledge of the human sciences into the study of leadership. Fleishman and Hunt[10] comment that the theoretical framework of these human disciplines still is in the developmental stages, but it is being utilized in the leadership area, and it may well be that leadership studies will contribute eventually to the general theory of human science. Constructive leadership training can increase the number of gifted who can function qualitatively and quantitatively, rewarding us all.

Given the emotional power of leadership, it is no surprise that social scientists have devoted large amounts of time and resources to studying it. There is evidence in the literature surveyed in an earlier paper [16] that leadership can be created, trained, and developed in either persons of average or of above-average intelligence,[7,8] depending on the situation. Such is the case with recent attempts being made to teach leadership skills to the gifted population at some of the schools of the Los Angeles School District. The teaching is based on the following assumptions:

1) Leadership styles can not be completely learned but each individual will tend to behave in certain ways in specific situations.

2) Behaviors can be changed towards a better self-development for individuals by developing realistic and measurable goals which can be carried out.

3) Leadership is inherent to anyone; everyone has at some time or another certain personality factors and innate abilities that will qualify him as a leader at a certain point and at some specific situation. Different types of problem solvers rise for different occasions—what the leader should do is bear the responsibility of the situation.

4) ***Leadership skills can be taught***, that is; the individual can be provided with the knowledge to get the best of the situation.

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20. Numbered references can be found on page 33 at the end of this chapter.

Leadership consequently may be defined as the force by which an individual exerts an influence in releasing, channeling, and controlling the thoughts, energies, and emotions of himself and others. This force may be direct or indirect. We also know that this leadership force may be constructive or destructive, depending on its interlocking factors. That is, the individual's personality, knowledge, and special capacity, talent, or acquired skill as well as problem-solving powers, creative imagination, character and experience, strongly affect the quality of leadership.

In order to utilize individual, environmental, and particular situation resources at the most effective level, the training program at the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) was established. The Center, a nonprofit, educational institution, was founded in Greensboro, North Carolina, in 1971, funded primarily by the Smith Richardson Foundation Inc. One of the Center's main concerns is to answer the question "Where are we going in the field of leadership study?" Along with other critical academicians and researchers, they have found the answer quite discouraging. According to McCall,[20] social scientists have even failed to reach a consensus on the meaning of leadership. So, now is the moment to stop and ask, what, how, why, and for whom are we studying leadership?

Summer Institute Applications of Research

CCL is in search of some of the answers. The Center is devoted to the identification and development of innovative leaders and its primary goal is to translate the knowledge of the behavioral sciences into useful applications for people in leadership positions. Towards this goal, the Center conducts and reviews relevant research, and uses these findings in a variety of training programs. One of them is the Summer Institute for advanced, autonomous, self-starting graduate students who are Ph.D. candidates.

This author had the opportunity to be one of the Summer Fellows selected for the 1976 Institute. In this Summer Program, the Institute is:

1) Geared towards the identification and development of high-level talent in organized endeavors in the area of psychology, business, and sociology

2) Designed to stimulate interest in the topics of creativity and leadership

3) Designed to encourage outstanding students to think about the practical application of academic knowledge.

These are the same objectives that we outlined for the gifted population in the areas of leadership and creativity by the Los Angeles Schools.[17] So, let's look more closely at CCL's summer program.

The Summer Institute was eight weeks long, June 4 to July 30. It started with the Seven-Day Leadership Development Program, a 70-hour program featuring individual assessment and self-development training. Content areas are 1) The Creative Leadership Process, 2) Decision-Making, 3) Leadership Styles and Effectiveness, 4) Utilizing Group Resources, 5) Funneling Applied Creativity, 6) Feedback and Counseling, and 7) Self-Directed Personal Development. The next two weeks provided us with a thorough grounding in the basic principles of effective appraisal and constructive feedback. During

this initial three-week period, an impressive list, quantitatively and qualitatively, of people spoke to the Fellows on many of the topics above. Academic knowledge was put into practical application for the next four weeks when the Fellows flew to the Twin Cities of Minnesota for internships at business, industrial, governmental, or educational organizations. A report of the management appraisal system in each Fellow's internship organization was given in the last week of July back at the Center.

Everyone involved in the program enjoyed this unique experience that would not come again. The Center for Creative Leadership had also brought them personal enrichment, general philosophy, and important principles of leadership. That is what I would like to share with you as a help towards the implementation of a leadership program for the gifted population or reinforcement for the on-going program.

Principles of Leadership

CCL believes that learning does not occur by reading textbooks alone, nor does it occur in a vacuum. Learning happens mainly through experience, and the most efficient learning situations are probably those where experience is carefully structured to teach specific points.

The Center has focused on an integrated leadership assessment/development effort. Although decades of leadership research have produced but few substantive conclusions, CCL does not believe the field of leadership should be abandoned. It is the Center's opinion that leadership has been studied in the wrong context. Their philosophy that leadership can be learned is categorized in the following principles:[3]

1) ***Learning by doing***—making decisions, learning from mistakes, trying out new leadership behaviors and skills, and practicing those seen as most effective

2) ***Learning from feedback***—counseling regarding the individual's personality, skills, and behavior as they relate to the creative leadership ability and potential

3) ***Learning to change***—self-analysis, a constant flow of information being provided about participants through formal behavioral assessments, ratings on exercises, psychological test results, staff and peer observations to help individuals plan personal development

In summary, proper information and experiences are given the individual to help identify areas that need to be changed. The participants develop realistic, measurable goals. CCL believes that people can be responsible and self-directed although they may have to be helped to achieve those goals. CCL includes in the process of leadership development some or all of the steps below:

1) Awareness of needs and qualities of character

2) Involvement of others to clarify needs and define goals

3) Definition of roles and expectations

4) Program planning

5) Exploration of alternative ways to approach a goal

6) Development of a clear understanding of the purposes and basic principles of organizations by which its purposes may be accomplished.

7) Development of skills and information necessary for leadership

8) Action

9) Evaluation of progress.

Five Activities

CCL has committed itself to make something happen in the study of leadership. To do this, they have reorganized into five, interrelated and somewhat unstructured, activities:

1) ***Leadership development*** translates behavioral science knowledge into programs that are aimed at the following goals:

   a) Improve individual and group effectiveness through self-development of leadership skills

   b) Develop the effective use of the fundamental knowledge of leadership skills and interpersonal relationships

   c) Develop methods for solving problems

   d) Continue training in attitude and personality

   e) Re-evaluate self constantly.

CCL believes that leadership can be taught—at least, some components of leadership are a teachable set of skills. While they recognize that not all people want to learn leadership skills, some may not learn them easily, and others may learn them from experience, they are convinced that any leader or aspiring leader can benefit from learning more about self and the leadership process.

This conviction is expressed in a concrete way through the Leadership Development Program—a one-week long experience consisting of experienced leadership dilemmas in true-to-life simulations, the learning of the practicality of behavioral science research and theory, and experiencing the end-of-program feedback on their personal strengths and weaknesses. Other courses offered at CCL are applied creativity, utilizing group resources, and decision making.

2) ***The Research Division*** is classified into three main sections:

   a) Research on Training of Leadership
   These studies are for understanding and improving current training efforts provided by the Center and also elsewhere in the area of leadership development.

   b) Research on the Creative Process
   This research is to learn more about creative processes, especially as they pertain to leadership. The studies have focused on both attitudinal (what people say) and behavioral (how they act) indices. Creative leaders, as defined through the Center's assessment procedures, are likely to be "extroverted intuitives"—enthusiastic innovators who see new possibilities and go all out in pursuing them to completion. The examination of other potentially relevant variables to creative behavior is underway.

c) Research on Leadership
Innovation in leadership training requires using the results of current research and, perhaps more importantly, generating translatable research on neglected but important issues in leadership.

3) ***Fellowship Evaluation*** by the Center is presently focusing on the evaluation of the network-expanding functions of long-term training (e.g., what programs stimulate what kind of interpersonal networks and what kinds of contacts are best for long-term impact). This is accomplished through individual fellowship programs at the Center. One of them is the Summer Institute, which serves the purpose of building a network among future practioners as well as giving the Center a "window on the latest university thinking."

4) ***Publications/Media/Library*** distributes products which explain, supplement, and/or demonstrate what the Center is doing.

5) ***Computer and Evaluation*** division organizes and evaluates data about the Center's research and training efforts.

A Trend of Direction

Basically, the Center believes that the confusion and skepticism about leadership have come from the following two major sources:[19]

1) ***"Leadership theories"*** have traditionally been short-ranged and atomistic, focusing on leader-group relations and passing over leader-group-system relationships, with the outcome of mixed research results, untested assumptions and proliferations of unintegratable models.

2) ***The discrepancy between observational studies*** (what leaders do) and ***current theory*** (what leaders have done, should do, could do, or say they do).

By 1975, CCL had gathered several neglected variables in the field of leadership training and research. In a conference held at the Center, June 30-July 1, 1975, titled "Leadership: Where Else Can We Go?" the Center staff plus six social scientists, Craig Lundberg, Ian Mitroff, Jeffrey Pfeffer, Louis Pondy, Peter Vaill, and Karl Weick, outlined these variables. The outcome, summarized below, has important implications for future training, research and leadership practice and, no doubt, the teaching of leadership to the gifted population.

1) Leaders and organizations are full of contradictions and incongruities. Leadership models which expect a leader to have one "style" or "approach" have limited utility even when they introduce situational contingencies, because of the literally hundreds of activities that are part of the daily life of a leader. Studies addressing the relationship between leadership and cognitive style that include environmental references have produced more convincing results.

2) Leader-member relations are only one part, and perhaps a small part, of the leadership phenomenon. Studies show that there are other relationships, such as several influential leaders in their task-environment, and delegation, which can be a political tool used by leaders to create a desirable situation.

3) The autocratic or democratic leadership that we react to is only a part of the larger and more complex set of phenomena comprising the role of leader.

4) Leaders are plagued by interruptions and activities of short duration with half of their activities lasting about nine minutes each. How do leaders synthesize, integrate, and understand the larger picture in this environment? If leaders face a near-infinite set of behaviors, we are faced with the possibility that there may not be any one best way of responding. This poses an interesting dilemma as to which combination of behaviors would be most effective in a given situation. Consequently, more sensible answers can be arrived at if deeper levels are explored. It seems that, whether teaching about leadership or observing leadership behaviors, we should be aware of points such as how leaders structure their own environments, select appropriate behaviors, and solve ill-structured problems. What seems to be important is the "how" and not the "when" or "in what specific situation."

5) The importance and complexity of the leader's information network makes it clear that a major element of the leadership process is political, but little empirical work in leadership has confronted these issues directly. More studies are needed.

6) Skills in oral communication as a variable in leadership has to be measured and receive more adequate attention, as 60 to 80% of the leader's time is spent in oral language. The cognitive processes whereby individuals in leadership roles are able to "hear," retain, transmit, select, and appropriately utilize all means of communication offered is also particularly relevant.[4,22]

7) Leadership research has been devoid of longitudinal investigations.

8) Training courses that apply to "all" leaders emphazise interpersonal skills, leadership style, environmental/structural/situational factors, small group dynamics, motivation, attitudes, and internal changes seldom address the variable of technical competence in leadership.

A Domain of Neglected Issues

McCall and Lombardo[20] emphasize that none of the above variables is presented as the single determinant of leadership behavior; the variables represent a domain of neglected issues that are linked to processes and thus force the researcher out of a static paradigm.

All in all, CCL[3] emphasizes the need for research on leadership to focus on the leader-group-system relationship in all its complexity, superficiality, and ambiguity; and more observational studies on what leaders ***actually do***—sound data about the different roles that leaders fill, the different functions they perform, the kinds of information they use, and simply how they spend their time. The Center also recommends "behavioral in-basket" as a possible training vehicle. There, trainees respond first to typical in-basket situations, then face these situations under simulated conditions.

How many of these variables can be applied to the study of leadership on the gifted population? Almost all of them, it seems. The similarities between what CCL is providing for the adult population in leadership and creativity, and what California school systems want to provide for their gifted population cannot be overlooked.

Suggestions to Enhance Leadership Training

One of the very important factors to be emphasized if we think of leadership training for the children in the gifted population is—how to train them in a way that will enable them to use their skills in almost all situations? The answer is certainly not through teaching technical skills since we would need a specific job or assignment for that. Specifically with the gifted population one wonders—how can one improve somebody's ability or just make them aware of their potential? One of the answers is through the learning, development, and awareness of the "self" within each individual. Ex-Coach Wooden of the UCLA Bruins defines "being aware of yourself," to his National Champion basketball players: "Success is peace of mind which is a direct result of self-satisfaction in knowing you did your best to become the best that you are capable of becoming."

Leadership training can lead to awareness within oneself, to a better recognition of emotional and spiritual things, leading to a greater self-fulfillment, creativity, and intrinsically rewarded experiences. Gowan[12] emphasizes this in the following quote:

> It should be pointed out that some of the value in leadership training lies in its power to help the individual understand himself as a result of his increased understanding of the dynamics of human emotions generally. As a result, he may decrease autocratic tendencies and allow others enough freedom to work creatively. For this reason, courses in leadership training, in general, constitute excellent personal therapy, since in learning to govern others we must, perforce, learn to govern ourselves.

Reviewing personal experiences can help determine leadership potential. Personal goals[16] for leaders who wish to improve include the following:

1) Being respected by members of class
2) Being able to influence others to work toward good goals
3) Being able to influence others to be leaders
4) Taking charge of a group
5) Judging ability of others
6) Solving problems and helping others improve
7) Being worthy of a job
8) Being looked up to by others
9) Sensing what others want and helping them accomplish it
10) Enthusiasm—entering activities with goals for improvement.

It is interesting to observe how CCL's training content stresses the same topics. With that in mind, here are some suggestions that I think would enhance the effects of leadership training:

1) Develop an atmosphere in which people feel free to discuss and express their feelings about leading, their feelings of difficulties, the places where they feel that they need help.

2) Develop a sense of shared interests and problems and a climate of mutual respect and understanding among members in which each is willing to help and be helped by the others.

3) Adapt the training program to meet the needs and interests of members in a particular group.

4) Develop a problem-solving orientation toward difficulties of leadership.

5) Clarify the training goals--what members hope to accomplish through study, discussion, and practice.

6) Understand ***internal*** and ***external*** forces for and against change.

7) Acquire and practice needed new skills, as shown by the analysis of the leadership situation.

8) Relate training to actual situations in which the members will use it.

9) Provide continued reinforcement in applying to the situation, the knowledge and fundamentals learned in training.

10) Provide use of role playing in the training situation, to bring out data about human behavior and human relations which are not made available by more traditional methods—role playing also allows many attitudes and feelings that fundamentally affect group process, usually left unexpressed, to be brought before the group for review.

11) It should be structured to achieve specific goals, with the structure coming from established psychological principles.

12) Constant feedback to the student, as an aid to personal development.

Leadership should be given a high educational rank. It is more than a tool or instrumentality of procedure, but a way that conditions the ends towards which the action is directed. As Gowan and Demos[13] explain:

> The leader is the temporary stewardship of the followers' unrealized rights and opportunities. He is the mission to help them make progress, not in controlling others, but themselves. For he frees them in the manner of a Lincoln to help themselves to greater freedom. In this, his leadership implements and becomes itself a part of that greatest imperative of any culture; the graduate revolutionary progression of a larger and larger share of its people toward self-determination, self-understanding, and self-fulfillment.

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CHAPTER V: GIFTED AND TALENTED STUDENTS LEARN LEADERSHIP FROM BUSINESS

by Donald N. Treloar,
Senior Community Relations Consultant,
Community Affairs,
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The (quiet) person who knows how to use the complex forces at work today doesn't necessarily get on the TV screen, but certainly is responsible for major accomplishments.
Alfred Del Bello
Westchester County Executive

Industry can offer exciting challenges to the student who is gifted in leadership. The challenge of identifying the exceptional child belongs, of course, to the educator but business will work with the school system in developing the student's potential. Another constant challenge for educators is finding programs for those gifted in leadership and that's where some welcome help can be found from the business world.

I'm sure that wherever schools are located there are businesses that will respond to a well-planned project to develop leadership potential in gifted children. I would suggest a program that combines the educators' participation as well as the students. Those who teach gifted children can be innovative, too! If there is an IBM Corporation nearby, develop a program that requires the use of computers, programmers, and computer terminals. Bring the latest equipment and sophisticated programmers into the school world of the children. After all, what sense does it make to develop a plan which uses IBM calculators, tabulators, and other equipment of the 1950's, when today's equipment is transistorized and compact? Keep up with the times, especially for the sake of the gifted and talented.

Untapped Resources

Insurance companies are often cities unto themselves. Untapped resources are there for the asking. Sales promotion, advertising, artwork, publications, writing skills, mathematics, and investments are only a few of the areas crying for student and teacher exploration.

Develop a program which will require the input of business. After seeking support from principal and superintendent, contact a local business for help in the project. Business has many ways to offer assistance. Besides the company's resources, many company employees are most anxious to volunteer their expertise. More and more, businesses are establishing volunteer programs in which their employees can be matched in a one-to-one situation,

or to work on special team projects. This type of activity is made to order for gifted and talented students.

At Prudential, we have been closely associated with a school for bright students known as School Within A School (SWAS). Our activities, which I will give in greater detail later, include a probability and statistics program conducted by volunteers from Sales Promotion, and a special project in our audio-visual area. While I can give many details about my company's program, I want to emphasize that there are other companies conducting similar projects. To learn about various company-sponsored programs, I suggest checking on types of projects in which local companies are involved. A Chamber of Commerce would be a good place to start this search.

Two well-known national organizations collect details on all the major companies that have social responsibility programs. They are the Public Affairs Council in Washington, D.C. and the Human Resources Network in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Don't hesitate to write to these very fine organizations for the complete data they have compiled on company programs. If nothing else, this information can be a useful source for new project ideas.

In April 1976, I had the opportunity to participate as a panelist representing the business community at the Council for Exceptional Children in Chicago. During the conference, I spoke about Prudential's involvement with the exciting SWAS program in the Newark, New Jersey Public School System.

"How Can I Assist You?" Concept

Our company has been quite involved in both the public and non-public educational sectors of the community, clearly of a supportive nature and not competitive. Ours is not a "let me show you how to do it" concept, but a "how can I assist you and your students?" concept. I feel that this is an extremely important point. Business is not and cannot ever take the place of the educator. We cannot identify the gifted and talented. What we can do is help the educator develop that talent, once identified.

At the CEC conference, I discussed one of the programs which Prudential developed at the request of SWAS and which has been conducted every summer since 1970. This program is administered by our Actuarial Department. The actuaries teach advanced mathematics and probability to those students selected and identified by the school as having not only potential, but also a desire to achieve in that field. We would hope that this supplemental program would assist both teacher and student. Furthermore, we might possibly be setting the stage for our hiring an employee who, upon college graduation, may become a future actuary.

Towards the conclusion of the freshman year of SWAS, certain qualities in the student are identified which the administration believes to be leadership. Intelligence and tenacity seem to be predominant traits. These students are then invited to participate in the many types of summer programs available to them. One such concept is Prudential's Summer Actuarial Program. Approximately 20 students are selected who express an interest in higher mathematics. It is the responsibility of the mathematics teacher to select the students with whom he or she will be working during the summer.

Prudential recruits student actuaries interested in teaching during the month of July.

One of the actuaries is the coordinator of the program. The actuary and the math professor have many meetings outlining the concepts of the course and the role each must play. Special texts are ordered by Prudential for the students. Calculators and all other necessary materials are also supplied, along with a pleasant conference room which is converted into a classroom. This is for a five-day, four-week period during July. The course is set up so that the student actuaries teach a morning session from 10:00 to 12:00, followed by lunch (which is provided by the company), and an afternoon class from 1:00 to 3:00. Daily homework is assigned by the actuary and the students report to the conference room each morning at 8:30 to review the homework with their teacher. The overall concept is to provide strong support to the school's math program and to bring out the potential in each and every student.

Gloria, one of the students in the initial class (1970) returned to the company the following year to work in one of the many special projects of the Actuarial Department. Working closely with actuarial students and actuaries, she was able to learn many of the actuarial concepts employed in business. This helped to further her development in the mathematics field. In her senior year she participated in a high school scholars program which was conducted at the Newark College of Engineering. The course, opened to high school seniors with exceptional talent, consisted of an integrated calculus-physics course. This was considered her senior high school work in which she received both high school and college credit. By her senior year (1973), Gloria knew the direction in which she was going. She also knew the college she wanted to attend and she already had 12 college credits.

During her summer vacations from Newark College of Engineering, she worked at Exxon Refining Corporation applying the skills that she was learning in an engineering corporation. Her aggressive role in her studies coupled with her on-the-job experience resulted in Gloria's completing college requirements for graduation within three years. During this past summer Gloria was employed by Exxon as an engineer and she used her summer earnings to enroll in graduate school beginning the fall semester of 1976.

Combined Efforts

I have no doubt that the development of this youngster was due to the total combined efforts of the educational and business worlds. Certainly, the extensive SWAS curriculum and the devotion of its fine teachers does much to influence the life of a youngster. Those who are aggressive, demonstrate a high intelligence, and a desire to excel should be given an opportunity to use their talents in the real world of work. This is the role that business and industry can and must play. Like educators, the business world must bring the best out of employees by offering them challenging, thought-provoking projects. The employee becomes not only valuable to business but also—and more important—valuable to himself. A person with a positive image is a valuable asset—in any situation!

With her summer experience in Prudential while in high school, Gloria was able to learn, develop, and at the same time begin to get her goals. Her

math background, coupled with her learning experience in a science scholars program, helped to narrow her selection to engineering. The opportunity to use her school-related programs at Exxon during her summer vacation further increased her value—to the point that she graduated from college a year early and was employed, not as a college trainee, but as a qualified engineer. This young lady took advantage of the opportunity to become a valuable asset to whatever and whomever she decides upon. She also has one other thing going for her: the ability to decide what she wants for herself.

Another example is Guy Murphy, a young man in our summer actuarial program. This, too, prepared him for the science background which is needed for the career he began to plan in SWAS. His college was the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. During summer breaks he worked academically at the College of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey during an eight-week intensive pre-med course called Students of Medicine. Guy Murphy completed M.I.T. in three years and is pursuing his career in medicine at the college where he spent his summers.

I have no doubt that these youngsters would achieve in whatever field of endeavor they decided to pursue. I do believe, however, their chances for achieving are much enhanced by the partnership of business and the educational world. This alliance brings about the best development of a youngster at the earliest date through allowing the students to use the skills developed by the teacher, with the up-to-date equipment and latest management techniques available in industry.

Perhaps it would be best at this point to discuss the purpose of the School Within A School program which is to seek talented youngsters from the inner-city and then provide them with a hard-work, no-nonsense program requiring them to carry five major subjects, eleven months during the year.

The school uses a battery of tests to determine the qualifications for youngsters entering the program as well as personal recommendations of former teachers and principals. The program is designed to develop the potential of each student by using an innovative curriculum and any of the resources in the Newark community to bring about its success.

Since the program is designed to prepare youngsters for successful completion of college, it might be too soon to determine if the students are excelling. The first graduating class was 1973 which means that these students would not graduate from college until 1977. However, a recent longitudinal study has indicated that over 70 percent of that class has entered senior year in college. It would appear that it is, in fact, a successful program.

For another example, last year a few of our employees from the Sales Promotion Department formed a committee and put together a project which they hoped could be used by SWAS students. Since it was a communications project, we approached the English Department Chairman to determine if any students would be interested in an after-school/work hours program at Prudential. Five students were selected to form the "SWAS – Communications Group – 1975."

The concept was simple: explain to the students the various avenues of communication and let them decide what it is they want to communicate and how they would communicate. The students, who were graduating in

1975, decided they wanted to tell the SWAS story to the incoming freshmen and their parents. The concept and development of the instrument from beginning to end was accomplished by these five students. The Prudential employees acted merely as an advisory council. They opened doors for the design, typing, artwork, and production where necessary, but the whole project was completed from beginning to end by these students. A copy of their project and accompanying letter is on the following pages.

I've tried to give you a broad overview of how the business world can use its leadership program for employees, on students who are learning the world of work. Employees who test well when hired are put into special programs where they are rotated every six months in various jobs. They are under pressure and must produce, but they are given every opportunity to excel. Certainly this type of program cannot be used on student interns. On the other hand, business can give a student intern the opportunity to develop his own skills by using modern equipment and showing him techniques in completing jobs.

Finally, I would like to emphasize once again that business is a great resource. Use it! It's better than money! Employees like to volunteer and share their experiences, business likes to keep employees happy and will respond to employees' needs, and business is well aware that future employees are products of today's school systems. Industry has found it makes good, practical sense to respond to well-thought-out educational programs.

LETTER TO PARENTS

school within a school

MALCOLM X SHABAZZ HIGH SCHOOL
80 JOHNSON AVENUE, NEWARK, NEW JERSEY 07108
201-248-8474

SEYMOUR SPIEGEL, Director

Congratulations. You are the parents of gifted, academically inclined young people. We realize their success is due largely to the encouragement and guidance you've given them. Your children are about to enter a difficult phase of their lives and they will need your continued support.

School Within A School practices the idea that education starts in the home and is enlarged in school. SWAS urges parents to take an active part in their child's education. (It is important that parents attend the Parent, Teacher, Student Organization, PTSO, meetings and take a working part. This organization raises money for scholarships for potential SWAS graduates.)

Although fund raising is very important, it does not take precedence over the PTSO's role in choosing the School Within A School faculty. With participation such as this, SWAS will always achieve its goal which is not only to prepare its students for college, but to have them accepted at the college of their choice and to expose them to vital material so often unavailable in public schools.

Rachel Jenkins
Glendora Simonson
Brenda Williams
Jeffrey Gilliam
Michael Powell
(SWAS Communications Group - 1975)

YOU'RE COLLEGE BOUND IN '75! ...WHAT ABOUT '79?

CONGRATULATIONS for being one of the two hundred students chosen as prospective 1979 School Within A School graduates. As such, you've been offered an opportunity and a challenge. The opportunity to better prepare yourself to compete with suburban students for college admissions, and the challenge to complete four years of rigorous study in SWAS.

July Session

The transition from an elementary or junior high environment to that of SWAS is unusually difficult. Therefore, the upcoming summer session will probably be the most formidable part of the SWAS program.

Your July curriculum concentrates on Math, Biology, English, and Library Research Skills. Because of the intensive, remedial nature of the program, classes are usually at least an hour long in July.

This session is designed to provide practical skills. For example, your library class will teach you the kind of research skills you will need to carry out assignments at SWAS and later in college.

The July program in subsequent years may be spent in various environments outside of school. Some summer programs which have been offered are:

- Advanced Placement Program (at Cornell University)
- Encampment for Citizenship (Various sites in the United States)
- Actuarial Math (Prudential Insurance Company)
- Environmental Program (New Jersey Institute of Technology)
- S.T.E.P. — Stevens Technical Enrichment Program (Stevens Institute)
- Medical Studies for High School Students (Hahnemann Medical School)
- Business Management (Colgate University)
- Advanced Math (New Jersey Institute of Technology)
- M.I.T.E. — Minority Introduction to Engineering (Lehigh University)

The SWAS Program

SWAS is not easy. It takes dedication, determination and a lot of hard work. For example, to graduate

A regular high school requires:

- 4 years English
- 2 years U.S. History
- 1 year Math
- 1 year Science
- 1 year Fine Art
- 1 year Practical Art
- 4 years Gym/Health

Total 14 "years"

SWAS requires:

- 4 years English } (Humanities Program)
- 4 years History }
- 4 years Math
- 4 years Science
- 2 years Music or Art
- 4 years Foreign Language
- 4 years Gym/Health

Total 26 "years"

Consequently, SWAS provides a much **broader** and more **thorough** background.

The SWAS Atmosphere

SWAS is based on the kind of "togetherness" relationship that leads to a high level of understanding and mutual respect among students, teachers, parents and guardians.

- SWAS encourages the student to ask questions.
- SWAS helps the teacher discover and correct student weaknesses.
- SWAS fosters an air of friendly competition in which each student is actively involved.
- SWAS offers parents and guardians an opportunity to help determine their child's academic studies.
- SWAS helps its potential graduates pay college expenses by helping them obtain scholarships from various sources: foundations, the State of New Jersey, civic organizations and SWAS's Parents Teachers Students Organizations.

The Parents Teachers Students Organization, by its very name, embodies the special spirit of cooperation at SWAS. Although it is not mandatory, it is traditional for parents or guardians to take an active part in this organization. The most successful students tend to be those whose parents or guardians are supporters of the PTSO.

In Summary:

- SWAS is a unique learning experience. You've demonstrated your aptitude and unless you choose otherwise, SWAS can be instrumental in the development of your academic ability.
- It is important to remember that it is YOU who makes SWAS what it is.

COLLEGE BOUND, 1975!

IN THE COLLEGE OF YOUR CHOICE IN 1979?

IT'S UP TO YOU!

This folder prepared by the SWAS Communications Group, June 1975

CHAPTER VI: CREATIVE LEADERSHIP

by Sidney J. Parnes
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The function of leadership is to produce more leaders, not more followers.
Ralph Nader

Programs for superior students, or students with high ability, have not tended to resolve the major problems that "drive out" the imaginative and innovative student from colleges, as pointed out by Paul Heist[6] and his contributors to the book *The Creative College Student: An Unmet Challenge*. He concluded that students who are ranked as creative tend to leave some colleges as frequently and often more frequently than students not identified as creative. Joseph Axelrod, a contributor to the volume, concludes: "The kind of person who receives the ***A***'s today is just the right man—for yesterday; he is just the wrong man for tomorrow." He was referring to the kind of individuals needed for tomorrow's leaders in the community, nation and world. I believe the same may well be true not only at the college level, but throughout the educational system.

Unlocking the Giftedness in People

Too often education has been concerned with developing "quiz kids" who can answer all the questions as long as the exact material to fit a particular question has been fed into the student's brain. One of the winners of TV's "$50,000.00 Challenge" in the fifties was discovered several years ago by a newspaper reporter. Driving a taxi in one of the big cities, he commented to the reporter that he never found any use for his ability at remembering facts except on that quiz show. If we are concerned with developing creative leaders for the future, then it is the ***imaginative use*** of knowledge that we need to be dealing with in our educational processes.

Calvin Taylor[11] urges a multiple-talent approach to education, where different kinds of stars tend to evolve in the classroom, depending on the particular intellectual ability that is dealt with at the moment. This is consistent with Guilford's Structure-of-Intellect[5], showing 120 different intellectual factors of which most IQ tests measure only a handful. Applying the findings of the past 25 years of research by Taylor, Guilford and others would lead us to teach ***for giftedness*** in all students, rather than to teach only "gifted" students.

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6 Numbered references can be found on page 53 at the end of this chapter.

In our leadership program for both teachers and students at Buffalo State University College we are concerned with methods of nurturing this "giftedness" (these natural potentials), at whatever level it occurs. This was brought out to me quite dramatically at a conference for the gifted by a speaker relating an incident in her teaching experience. She had been recruited to handle a group of highly gifted students and developed some very interesting and creatively-oriented teaching methods with those students. After a few years, she was returned to a regular classroom with average students and discovered that the teaching procedures she had learned were extremely valuable in those "normal" classes.

The procedures and methods she discussed invariably involved processes that helped students develop interrelationships among that vast data that they hold in their brains. These processes help them to reshuffle these data, as a kaleidoscope reshuffles its elements to form countless patterns, so as to produce new ideas and solutions to problems. Oftentimes these processes involve a great deal of right-hemisphere thinking in the brain, which is then integrated with the analytical, logical, left-hemisphere thinking that school programs so often emphasize.

As an illustration of the importance of this at all levels of education, it is interesting to note one specific finding among the many in the extensive research of Richard Crutchfield[3] and his associates[2]. They point out that their programs and materials for creativity development worked across all levels of IQ. As a matter of fact, the middle-IQ group could do better on some tests after training than the gifted (high-IQ) group could do before training—in spite of some 25-point IQ difference between the two groups. This illustrates quite effectively what J. P. Guilford refers to as "creative underachievement" by many high-IQ students. Similar research has also shown, quite consistently, that these high-IQ students, after training, can also increase significantly their ability to perform on creativity tasks.

Perhaps another way of emphasizing what I have been saying is to quote Robert Albert in his article, "Toward a Behavioral Definition of Genius"[1]. He claimed, "One does not have genius, one does genius-level work." He concludes:

> The above arguments suggest that a genius is not a blessing, a danger, or a fortuitous occurrence; it is not a trait, an event, or a thing. Rather, it is, and always has been, a judgment overlaid with shifting values. What genius has often been based on is creative behavior, which, although highly personalized, is made public and is eventually influential over many years and often in unpredictable ways. By being both productive and influential, this behavior can be measured, its influence traced, and the factors and events underlying it better understood. Of all the qualities attributed to persons of genius the most remarkable, along with perceptiveness, are continuity, endurance, productivity, and influence. Men and women with such attributes are usually esteemed and often honored. They are almost always eminent in comparison to others. But they do not have genius.

The "Aha" Phenomenon

We might say that the goal of unlocking giftedness in people refers to increasing the probability that the "aha" phenomenon will be experienced more frequently and more deeply by these students—the "aha," such as that experienced by Archimedes in the bathtub and Sir Issac Newton under the apple tree. To illustrate in a very simplistic way, if someone were to ask, "What is half of eight?" you might readily respond "four." However, if I were to say that half of eight were zero, you might be puzzled. Or you might play with the notion a bit; you might begin to see half of eight as half of 8, or o (zero). You might suddenly grasp the change in viewpoint needed in order to be able to see half of eight visually then, as zero. When this occurs an individual might very well have the mild sensation of "aha" or "I get it!"

This is associated with all discoveries in learning. It is at the heart of what we are trying to do in teaching for giftedness in people. Although we cannot ever guarantee it, we attempt to increase this ***probability*** of a person having more and deeper "ahas" as they work with subject matter in their courses or in their lives.

It is also important to emphasize that having the "aha" is not the be-all and end-all of creativity. It is the implementation of the "aha" in some relevant way—the development of the creative insight into a meaningful plan regarding some problem, goal or purpose—that becomes the totality of what we see as the creative process. Thus we are concerned in any creative-development program with a balance between the imagination and the judgment, between the logic and the emotion, etc.

Creative Leadership vs. Leadership for Creative Behavior

A group can be creative primarily in the sense that its leader is highly creative and directs the personnel autocratically in implementing his or her creative ideas. On the other hand, a group can be creative because its leader subtly stimulates the creative productivity of the individual members. The group or organization that provides for such creative growth of the individual is one wherein the intrinsic satisfactions are often greater than the extrinsic rewards—for example, the sense of contributing a major portion of oneself to the job or a sense of heightened self-expression being tangibly rewarded. When this happens in a school situation, the student finds learning to be creating rather than striving for *A*'s. It is this sense of creative leadership and creative learning that we are dealing with in our program.

We use the term "facilitator" to connote the leader who draws out, reinforces and thus facilitates the creative learning, development, and problem solving of the people with whom he or she is working. In dealing with highly creative students, it seems even more important that leadership be developed in the form of facilitating creative behavior as described above rather than merely providing an example of creative behavior in front of the students. When the opportunity for their own creative expression is not allowed gifted individuals, it would seem that we would either turn off their own potential, or else alienate and lose them entirely.

The person who is facilitating creative behavior is aware and conscious of the creative process, and understands it in himself or herself first; then he or she is able to help others to see it and strengthen it in themselves. If one

does not understand this, one may only frustrate the other person when the latter sees the creative behavior of the first person but doesn't know how to make it happen in himself or herself.

Fran Striker, the originator of the Lone Ranger series, and a highly prolific writer of books, comic strips, etc., attended our Creative Problem-Solving Institute. After he had completed the program, I asked him what it meant to him, inasmuch as I felt that he had exemplified beforehand the kind of behavior that we were trying to encourage at the Institute. He responded that he never understood how he had created in the past, and that understanding it, he was now able to call on it even more deliberately and constantly. In addition, from the standpoint of creative leadership, he commented on how extremely helpful his new learning was to him in helping others to use their creative potential in the creative writing course he happened to be teaching. Before that he had often frustrated people by his own creative ability, being unable to convey to them how to proceed on their own. Thus, teachers of the gifted need to both model and deliberately develop in students the ability to facilitate creative behavior, so these students can do likewise with others in their future leadership roles.

Qualities of a Strong Facilitator

The effective facilitator needs first of all to believe in the human dignity of people—in their capability as creative beings. He or she needs to be open to ideas and viewpoints, prone to question rather than to tell, "Socratic" in stance as well as "deferjudiced." "Deferjudice" is a term that I coined to connote the ability to take ever-increasing amounts of data into consideration, ***in a given unit of time***, before reaching a decision. This is contrasted with the two extremes of predjuice and indecisiveness (Parnes and Biondi[9]).

Enthusiasm is very helpful in a facilitator, but there can be a kind of self-evident sincerity as well as the bubbly type of enthusiasm. Some of the other qualities that come to mind when I think of effective facilitation are the following: sense of humor, a fondness or acceptance of all kinds of people, quick thinking, ability to use the creative process rapidly in snap decisions, ability to live happily in ambiguity—not just tolerate it; ***invites*** ambiguity perhaps—yet maintain the balance necessary for bringing about an ultimate greater order from the disorder in the ambiguity (via the creative process); always ***looks*** for something good or positive in a circumstance, an idea, a person, a thing; tactful; can remain on the sidelines—doesn't need the "spotlight"; is kind and concerned; optimistic; laughs or smiles a lot; doesn't take self too seriously; interested in others; is a hard worker—self-motivated; sincere; dedicated; confident that the creative process will carry one through; willing to take caluclated risks where one's own efforts in the risk may make the difference; spontaneous; flexible; accepting; can get a group to cohere; has "group-building" ability; is aware of nonverbal clues, feelings, etc.; respects potential of individuals and the group as a whole; makes fun and play out of the process at many points—tolerates some foolishness—but always toward a serious objective; plays hunches; is conscious of time constraints, but flexible within them.

As to the knowledge involved in the content or problem-area being considered, the more the better. Although a good facilitator can do without complete expertise, one can apply the creative process to the problem of

seeking out information and helping classroom students or teachers or members of a problem-solving group to do so.

Facilitating the Creative Process

Facilitating the creative process involves primarily removing the blocks to creative functioning, and accelerating the process where possible. Basically we might say that the psychological blocks hindering creative behavior are both internal and external. Starting from the outside, it behooves the leader to establish a kind of climate which provides for what Carl Rogers calls "psychological freedom" and "psychological safety."[10] The participants must feel at ease—free to explore, to play, to experiment, to fail—in the early stages of each step of the process, with full understanding that the deferring of judgment during this period of spontaneity and experimentation will be followed by significant analysis, development, evaluation, and synthesis as required in the total process. They must not only feel psychologically safe and free, but sure as well that their efforts will be worth some significant results and will be followed through toward some valid conclusion and action.

As to the internal blocks, these refer to the "internal governors" that individuals have, often unknowingly, that prevent them from fully functioning. Basically they revolve around two key aspects: habit and anxiety. Habit causes individuals to jump at the first response that comes to mind regarding a problem—to make the first association that brings closure to them. If we wish to make creative associations among the data that we have in our brain, we need to "inhibit the impulse to act on one's first idea," as psychologist L. L. Thurstone[12] stated long ago.

However, if one does avoid habit, one frequently finds oneself dealing with strange or novel thoughts and ideas, which leads to the question of anxiety about these thoughts. Once we are not on the tried and true path—knowing where it will take us—we are frequently concerned or afraid, and will therefore forego any further consideration of the less obvious ideas, staying with the tried and true for "safety's sake."

One of the best means that we know to deal with these blocks, both internal and external, is the deferred-judgment principle. Deferred judgment implies listing all of one's ideas as fast as they come to mind, with no regard to quality at the moment. One strives for as fast a flow of ideas as possible—combining, rearranging, associating, and triggering off earlier thoughts as fast as possible, avoiding all judgment for the time being—knowing full well that once a quantity of ideas has been produced, these thoughts will be evaluated carefully, with the best possibilities chosen for further development and implementation.

This process is easy to understand intellectually, but very difficult to follow behaviorally, because of a lifetime of sets which we have established in our minds with respect to judgment, accuracy, etc. However, research has established quite consistently that the deferred-judgment principle, whether used by an individual or by groups, can be a significant accelerator of idea production, as well as a stimulus to the production ultimately of valuable solutions that work effectively for our problems and challenges.

Accelerating the Process

"Once a person has become more open and willing to let ideas flow, there are a number of procedures that can help to increase this flow and move it into more original directions. Most of these involve directing our energies toward forming new relationships among existing data—among ideas or elements that do not seem to be connected. W. J. J. Gordon's[4] definition of the creative process is that it involves making things relevant that appear to be seemingly irrelevant. This is the very heart of the process that the leader practices in order to strengthen participants' abilities to generate novel ideas or new viewpoints.

I summarized earlier[8] the following especially fruitful techniques for triggering such new ideas:

Checklists. Alex F. Osborn[7] devised an impactful checklist consisting of a series of verbs used to change an individual's mental set as he or she contemplates a problem or a situation. For example, three of the verbs are: magnify, minify, and rearrange. Supose a family were trying to generate ideas on ways to enjoy their meals together more fully. If they were to think about the situation and apply the word magnify, they might come up with the following notions: "Invite more people occasionally—foreign students, teachers, local artists, etc."; "Increase the number of courses in the dinner (but decrease size of the portions) so as to provide more variety and interest to the dinner." Smaller portions relate to minify. Next might be the ideas "Eating around a very small table so as to make the whole dinner much more intimate" or "Elimate the meal and feed a needy family instead." Rearrange might suggest "Eating in the living room or on the porch." Or "Having a reverse meal with the dessert first."

Forced-Relationships. Another fundamental procedure is to make a "forced-relationship"; that is, take anything in one's awareness and attempt to relate it to the problem at hand. For example, in the previous meal situation, suppose the group were told to focus on a tree outside the window. Someone might spot the leaves and suggest decorating the table with leaves, or another might think of serving some simple element of the meal on attractive leaves; still another person might see the bark and suggest the possibility of a small ice-carving prompted by the groovings in the bark of the tree.

Forced relationships might, of course, involve other senses than sight. For example, the group might focus on a sound heard in common, such as a bird twittering outside; members might attempt to force a relationship between that sound and the situation. This could prompt ideas such as "Play recordings of favorite songs during meal times"; "Bring the canary into the dining room when we have dinner"; or "Play the music box, and pass it around from person to person to wind up and reset during the meal."

Aside from the use of current sensations as stimuli for forcing relationships, the participants can also be urged to use their imagination for providing additional stimuli. For example, the group might imaginatively take a safari into Africa, and bring back

something that relates to the situation at hand. The following examples might result: "Plan a meal around the TV show, ***Wild Kingdom***"; "'Monkey around' with the way food is served by placing the soup in glasses, the coffee in soup bowls, the ice cream on large platters, etc."; or "Take a picnic meal out onto a canoe or rowboat and eat in the middle of the river or lake."

Attribute-Listing. Another commonly used process to aid the flow of ideas, is what is called attribute-listing. This involves taking specific aspects of the situation and then focusing particularly on the aspect selected. The checklisting or the forced-relationship processes can then be applied to whatever specific aspect is the subject of focus. For example, in the meal situation we might look at the question of dessert, and examine everything we know about it—the shape, color, taste, etc., of each specific dessert that we might think of. We might then vary any one of those attributes or connect something else to that specific attribute. For example, suppose the item focused upon was orange jello, cut into squares. One attribute might be that it was "soft and shimmery." If we focused on a brick in the fireplace and applied something about the brick to the soft and shimmery quality of the jello, it might lead to the idea of freezing the jello and making it into a semi-icy dessert. The mental trip to Africa might suggest an animal-carving contest out of each one's jello before eating it. And so on!

Morphological Approach. The morphological procedure applies the notion of attribute-listing together with forced-relationship in a matrix approach. It speeds the production of countless ideas. In our meal illustration, we might list some of the following attributes: people involved, time, place, food, special effects, etc.. Under each heading we would list a number of alternatives. For example, under "people" we might jot down family, friends, strangers, needy people, celebrities, etc. Under "place" we might list different parts of the house, outdoors, picnics, campgrounds, etc. Under "time" might be breakfast, lunch, dinner, snacks, etc. Under "foods" all kinds of different food items could be listed. Under "special effects" we might have music, TV, odors, incense, etc. Then the group would take items at random from each of the headings (attributes) and connect them into a novel meal idea. For example, we might select celebrity, basement, breakfast, hamburger, and incense as random elements, one from each attribute-list. The group would then put these together or adapt them in different ways such as: "incense" the "head of the house" by serving the kids hamburger for breakfast in the basement game room; then surprise (him/her) with a special breakfast in bed. This example illustrates the point that we don't necessarily take the words literally. Incense suggested something different from a "special effect"; so did "monkey" in the earlier example.

These processes can help to break us away from some of our habitual thinking—some of our rigidity—into new connections of thoughts. It is also important to emphasize that these ideas are often just a starting point in the creative process. A great deal of

refinement and development are usually necessary to make the ideas workable within the realities that exist.

Conclusion

In creative leadership of gifted students, the challenge is the greatest there is anywhere for both the teacher as a creative leader and for the students themselves to develop these same leadership possibilities. The possibilities are so immense, because of the great potential of these students, that the facilitator has an enormously exciting challenge. One opportunity I had in leading a group of 20 highly-gifted younsters in a problem-solving task was one of the most rewarding I have ever had in my life. Intuitively the students seemed to understand, relate, and be sparked by what I was bringing out to them in terms of processes to generate "ahas." They tuned in beautifully and the whole event became a creation.

Probably no athlete is ***many times*** taller than others. However, it occurred to me while watching the Olympics, that many athletes are many times as ***effective*** in using an innate physical characteristic than the average person. They have become so by cultivating very strenously a somewhat greater advantage that they already possessed. If a person has the potential for being a good facilitator, possessing many of the attributes that I mentioned earlier, then by intensive practice that person might become just as dramatic in his or her skillfulness in leading an effective problem-solving session as an Olympic athlete might be in his or her developed skill. However, it is obvious this is not likely to happen without careful selection in terms of needed traits for facilitation, and intensive practice at extending and increasing the ability in ***using*** those traits to the utmost.

One might view the deliberate development of creative behavior as an exaggerated push for change. We "stretch" people beyond their normal limits in an oscillating process of imagining and judging, during all stages of problem solving—in pulling up facts, in defining viewpoints of the problem, in generating ideas, in recognizing criteria, and in finding ways of insuring the successful implementation and acceptance of ideas. We thus provide practice in intensive stretching between conception and action, in this oscilliating process. The result of this intensive practice has been scientifically demonstrated as increased ability to consider many more factors in a given time, in making decisions.

As facilitators, teachers and students alike, practice this type of leadership with more and more varied groups, they become conditioned to these processes and become, themselves, even more than anyone else, able to take increasing numbers of factors into consideration in a given time in making decisions. Hence the facilitator becomes one of the most highly creative leaders. If we could train all of our nation's leaders in these processes, in order to draw upon the creativity that is dormant in all groups and individuals, it might make a world of difference.

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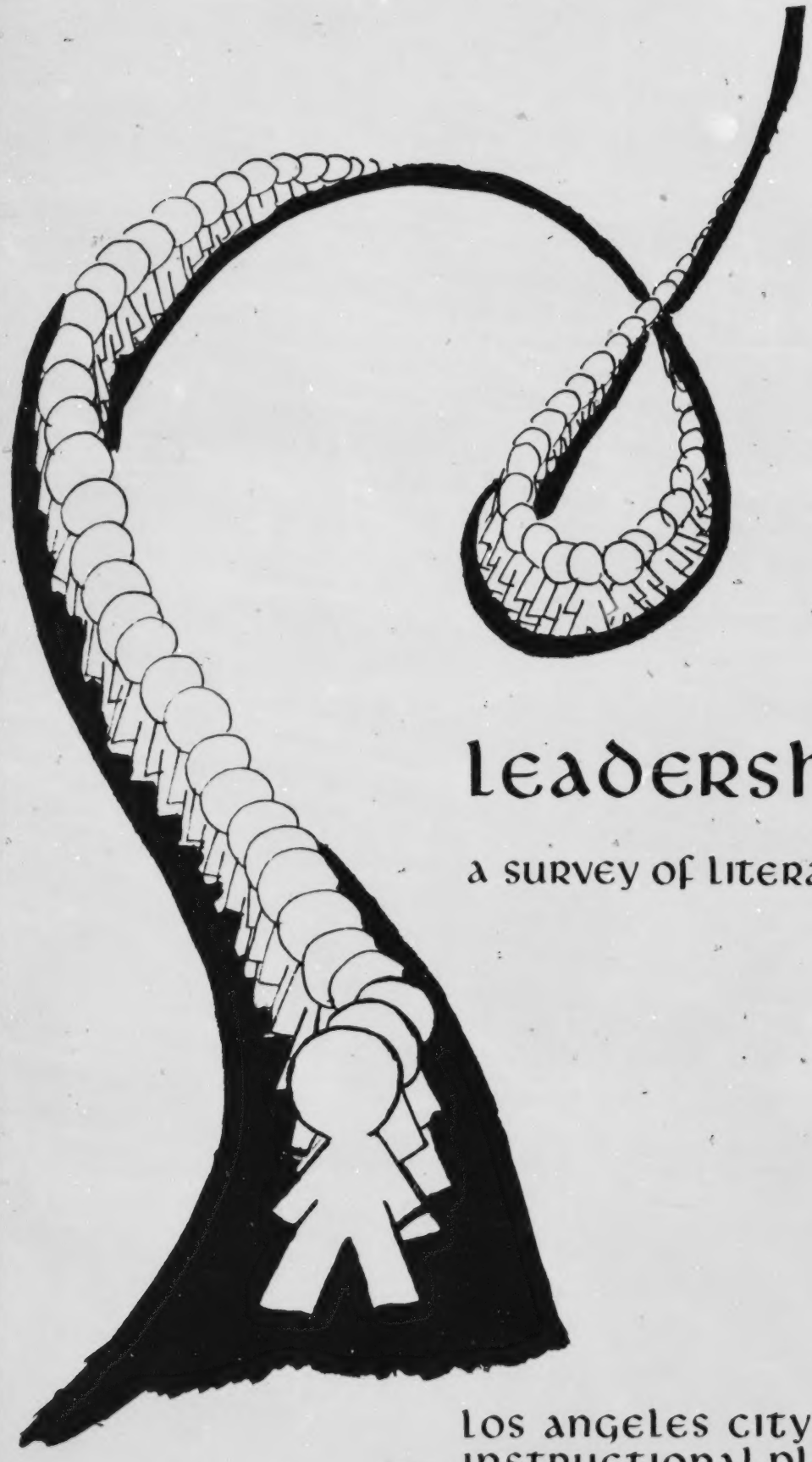

leadership

a survey of literature

Los Angeles City Schools
Instructional Planning Division
Programs for Gifted

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APPROVED:

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Editors Note:

The preceding chapters have described several practical applications of various principles of leadership. Following is a survey of the literature concerning leadership. This is offered as a general range of theories on the teaching/learning strategies of leadership.

CHAPTER VII: LEADERSHIP
A SURVEY OF LITERATURE

by Los Angeles City Schools
Instructional Planning Division
Programs for Gifted

Acknowledgments

During the summer of 1974, the National/State Leadership Training Institue for Gifted and Talented under the directorship of Irving S. Sato, invited a team from the Los Angeles City Schools to participate in the Second National Summer Leadership Training Institute on the Gifted and the Talented held in Wilmington, North Carolina. There the team drew up plans for a project designed to establish selection criteria and program prototypes to meet the needs of the unserved gifted with talent in leadership.

This review of the literature was a critical step in synthesizing the considerable research done in the field of leadership. Many questions have been raised and no simple answers have surfaced. However, it is apparent that humanity's fascination with the subject of leadership continues unabated.

Contributions of the following Team members to this ongoing project are greatfully acknowledged.

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Administrative Area J

Janez Bordeaux, Parent Representative
Central Advisory Committee

Lelia Krache, District Advisor
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(Chairperson)

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Introduction

There is a growing recognition of leadership as a significant aspect of human behavior. For the past half century, psychologists and sociologists have been increasingly active in attempting to introduce scientific methodology into the study of leadership. Fleishman and Hunt (1973) comment that

although the theoretical framework of a discipline such as psychology and sociology is still in the developmental stages, it is being utilized in the study of leadership. It well may be that leadership studies will contribute eventually to the general theory of human science.

J. P. Guilford (1968) points out the great need for leaders in our major institutions and asks how potential leaders might be discovered, developed and, more specifically, effectively educated.

Stout (1969) also comments that scholars interested in leadership have attempted to answer some of the most fundamental questions about human organizations such as: Why do people subordinate themselves to leaders? Why do leaders arise? What is the source of their influence and what is the process by which they exercise it? What difference does it make to an organization that leadership exists?

Isaacs (1973) enunciates the need for leadership in a very simple way:

1. A good leader can make the members of a group feel secure, needed, and wanted and be happily, creatively productive.
2. When all of these experiences occur, they add up to sound mental health for the members of the group.
3. If good mental health prevailed in the land, we would experience a great difference in the quality of environment.
4. „Gifted, constructive leadership can increase the number of people who can function giftedly, qualitatively and quantitatively, rewarding us all. (p. 111)

Gowan (1962) comments upon the waste of talent in our society. He urges the study of ways and means to develop leadership and social empathy among the gifted so that they might function earlier and more fully as innovators.

What then does the research in leadership show? Can leadership skills be taught or are they inherent? Are leadership training programs for the enhancement and development of leadership traits valid?

Definition of Leadership

Defining leadership involves an examination not only of what a leader ***is*** (physical traits, personality attributes, abilities, etc.) but also of what he ***does*** (behavior, methods, performance, etc.) under particular circumstances.

Stogdill (1974), for example, classifies leadership as:

A focus of group processes
Personality and its effects
The art of inducing compliance
The exercise of influence
Act or behavior
A form of persuasion
Power relationships
An instrument of goal achievement
An effect of interaction
A differentiated role
The initiation of structure

Gowan and Demos (1962) (p. 2) define leadership as a "complex social phenomenon, part personal, but also part social."

Early notions about leadership, however, dealt with it almost entirely in terms of personal abilities. Leadership was explicity associated with special powers.

> For many years, attempts to define these abilities and to measure them failed. This was not only because the early techniques were primitive and unreliable but for a more important reason. The traits that were defined as important for leadership were often nothing more than purely verbal expressions of what the researcher felt the leaders ***ought*** to be like. Few of the many lists of traits that were developed had very much in common. Typical of the items that frequently appeared on such lists were piety, honesty, courage, perseverance, intelligence, reliability, imagination, industriousness. (Bavelas, 1960, p. 493)

Some of these early definitions can be found in Gowan and Demos. (1962)

Bavelas made an important criticism of measuring leadership only through the trait approach:

> It is based not on the question of the accuracy or the validity of the assumptions that are made but upon the nature of the ***traits*** themselves. Traits are, after all, statements about personal characteristics. The objection to this is that the degree to which an individual exhibits leadership depends not only on ***his characteristics***, but also, on ***the characteristics of the situation*** in which he finds himself. (p. 494)

Taking a middle-of-the-road position, Knickerbocker (1948) defined a leader as a "product not of his characteristics, but of his functional relationship to specific individuals in a specific situation" As a result, he says, "the variability of leaders' characteristics upsets all but the broadest statistical effort at analysis." In effect, a leader emerges because of the needs of a group of people and of the nature of the situation within which the group is operating.

Following the same line of thought, Stogdill (1950) wrote that the leadership influence of any one member of an organization will be determined to a large degree by the total leadership structure of the organization. He also defines leadership more in terms of the activities of the organization than in terms of any single member's influence.

He listed some advantages for this model and definition:

1. It removes leadership from the broad, vaguely defined realm of social interaction in general, and integrates it with the basic variables which describe an organized group.
2. It suggests the development of methods for studying leadership as an aspect of work performance, work methods, and working relationship. (p. 53)

However, Taylor (1967), directs the definition toward personal traits: "Leadership, whatever it is, is leadership ***of*** people ***by*** people—and the reason

we do not know much about leadership is that we do not know much about people."

Modern trait research has gradually moved from the study of ***personal traits*** to include the area of ***social process***. Leadership is no longer understood as a function of personality structure alone, but as a situational interaction that has both personal and social features.

A number of authors are pursuing the situational approach. Mann (1959) states:

> Sufficient evidence has been accumulated to give impetus to the situational approach to leadership, which maintains that leadership is an emergent phenomenon, created through the interaction of individuals (leaders and followers), and that the selection and stability of any leadership pattern is a function of the task, composition, and culture of the group. From all this work has emerged some such summary formulation as that an individual's leadership status in groups is a joint function of his personality and the particular group setting. (p. 263)

Clifford and Cohn (1964) also believe in a relationship between the leader role and perceived attributes; as the situation changes, the perceived attributes required for the leader role will change. In a study using sociometric questions indicating leadership and results of elections for nine different leader roles (Kendall's tau was used to determine the relationship between each perceived attribute and each elective position), the results supported the conclusion that leadership is—in part, at least—a function of personality variables and of the specific situation, which is in turn a function of the follower's perceptions.

Fiedler (1964) follows the same line of thought, viewing leadership as the interaction of both situational factors and personal traits. (For development of his theory, see Section III, Theories of Leadership. p. 6)

The definitions of leadership in terms of influence imply that leadership theory and research should be concerned with at least three questions: 1) How much influence is exerted? 2) How is influence distributed among group members? 3) What characterizes the process of distributing influence among group members? The first two questions deal with quantitative aspects of leadership, asking how much there is and how much a given individual exercises. The third question asks about qualities of the leadership process. In what ways do individuals direct activities, influence matters of organizational relevance, or convince others of improved outcomes? In addition, leadership theory and research should be concerned with the question of leadership effectiveness. The three questions may then be transposed as follows, according to Farris (1974, p. 65-66). For greater effectiveness, 1) How much influence should be exerted? 2) How should influence be distributed among group members? 3) How should the process of distributing influence among group members be characterized?

Looking at the twenty years of literature Fleishman (1973) concluded that past theory and research on leadership have concentrated on the third question, attempting to identify characteristics of the leadership process which relate to greater effectiveness. Although some attention has been paid

to the distribution of influence among group members, leadership theory could treat this phenomenon more systematically. Finally, although open systems theories imply that it is important to know whether or not leadership is exerted on particular matters of organizational relevance, leadership theory and research have yet to deal with this question.

Theories of Leadership

Theories of leadership, if such can be said to exist, attempt to explain 1) the factors involved in emergence of leadership or 2) the nature of leadership.

Leadership theories are a subject that has enticed a large number of scholars into an even larger number of investigations. A great deal of research has been produced, but, unfortunately, the results are often contradictory and difficult to evaluate. They are usually obtained in small, ***ad hoc*** groups, and the applicability to actual organizations may be limited.

Gowan (1965) developed a theory that the study of leadership has suffered from confusion between structural and functional definitions. A structural approach will, he writes, ask what leadership is an attempt to define terms on the basis of static enduring realities. This approach, while historic, is unacceptable. A functional approach will ask what leadership does and will define its terms on the basis of changing dynamic relationships and the behaviors defining them. This approach "is complex but ultimately more satisfying and complete." (pp. 176-225) In his theory (1965), he defines ***leadership*** as the general trait tendency directed toward leadership in the individual. Specifically, leaderliness might be considered as a function of general energy, including intelligence, filtered through three media, "each of which, like a piece of glass, takes away a smaller or larger percentage of the orginal power in transmission." The three factors vary in their importance in different individuals from zero to unity, much like a correlation coefficient.

Stogdill (1974, pp 17-23) describes some of the classical leadership theories:

Great man theory – Holds that particular individuals are endowed with characteristics that cause them to stand out from the many and permit them to guide, direct, and lead the majority. This view explains the doctrine of the divine right of kings.

Times theory – Views leadership as a function of the given social situation. At a particular time, a group of people has certain needs and requires the services of an individual to assist it in meeting its needs. Which individual comes to play the role of leader in meeting these needs is essentially determined by chance, that is, a given person happens to be at the critical place at the critical time for that particular circumstance.

Leader as differentiated from the head – Gibb (1947) maintains that leadership, headship, and domination should be distinguished from one another. He believes that one meets the true definition of a leader only when the influence he exerts is accepted voluntarily by others, or when it is in a "shared direction." This is another arbitrary definition of leadership, which says, in effect, that only the "pull-type" influence process results in leadership.

Gibb further explains his theory:

> Leadership is both a function of the social situation and a function of personality, but it is a function of these two in interaction; no additive concept is adequate to explain the phenomenon. There is no justification for saying that personality qualities which make for leadership exist in a latent form when not being exercised in a social situation. Any qualities of personality common to leaders in varying situations may also exist in persons who never achieve leadership status. What might be called the attributes of leaders are abstracts from a total interactional situation and are qualities of a particular social role. In the absence of this kind of social situation the latent existence of the same pattern of qualities cannot be inferred. Again, this does not mean that there can be no potential leaders, but it does mean that the potentiality cannot be directly known any more than capacity can be known except as a back-inference from expressed ability. (p. 276)

Cooper and McGaugh (Stogdill, 1974) prefer to think of influence effectively exerted on others as leadership. From this they agree with Gibb that at any given time, interpersonal influence may be voluntarily accepted in a shared direction or may be domineering in nature and result in resentful acquiescence. In either circumstance, the person doing the influencing may or may not command a headship status. Finally, influence may be exerted only symbolically in some situations; that is, a leadership expectancy region is merely occupied by an individual who actually exerts no influence, either as a person others want to follow or as a dominator.

> ***Trait theory*** – The underlying premise which guided this research started during World War II was that there did indeed exist a trait state, or attribute of the leader, or perhaps a set of such traits, which could identify individuals who would become good leaders. The typical paradigm for leadership research during this early period called for 1) the identification of a group with leaders and followers (e.g., high school student body, basketball team, debating society, business enterprise, etc.); 2) the measurement of all group members on some trait, and 3) testing for a difference between characteristics of leaders and followers. The range of traits tested included everything from dominance, masculinity, and intelligence, to height, physical appearance, and fluency of speech. Two extremely thorough reviews of the trait studies by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) effectively closed the door on this line of research. These authors concluded that while certain traits, such as intelligence, showed consistent relationships with leadership status such relationships were far too weak and equivocal to be of any psychological significance. Instead, these reviewers and others (Gibb, 1947) clearly articulated the importance of considering the situation as well as the traits of the leader in any discussion of leadership. They argued that situations differ so radically in the demands they place upon persons who aspire to or occupy leadership positions that it makes little sense to expect a single trait or pattern of traits to be associated with leadership across all situations.

Personal-situational theory — This includes the affective, intellectual, and action traits of the individual as well as the specific conditions under which the individual operates. Several researchers dealt with this theory. According to Gerth and Mills as quoted by Stogdill:

> To understand leadership, attention must be paid to (1) the traits and motives of the leader as a man, (2) images that selected publics have of him and their motives for following him, (3) the features of the role that he plays as a leader, and (4) the institutional context in which he and his followers may be involved.

Interaction-expectation theory — Stogdill states that Homans developed a theory of the leadership role using three basic variables: action, interaction and sentiments. As one variable increases, the others increase proportionately. Leadership is defined in terms of the origination of interaction.

Other versions of this theory include the following:

1. Expectancy-reinforcement theory of role attainment, (developed by Stogdill, 1959) — the leadership potential of any given member of a group is defined by the extent to which the member initiates and maintains stucture in interaction and the fulfillment of the group expectation.
2. Path-goal theory of leadership (developed by Evans in 1970). The degree to which the leader initiates structure determines, in turn, the follower's perception of the paths (behaviors) through which rewards may be attained.

In this theory it is observed that the more variability, complexity, and ambiguity an individual faces the less psychological structure the individual will have.

House and Kerr (1974) who also dealt with the path-goal theory, expanded it to include environmental variables and individual difference variables. They explain the relationship between leader behavior and motivation of subordinates. The leader's functions are mainly strategic, that is, he provides for subordinates the coaching, guidance, support, and rewards necessary for effective and satisfying performance that would otherwise be lacking in the environment.

The theory asserts that to the extent that the leader accomplishes these functions his behavior will increase the motivation of subordinates to perform. (House and Dessler, 1974) It also asserts that the effects of role clarifying behavior by the leader vary with the essential ingredient of leader initiating structure.

3. Motivational theory of leadership — This theory proposes that the leader's motivational functions are to increase the subordinate's path instrumentality with respect to work-goal attainment for personal outcomes and behavior required for work-goal attainment.

Contingency theory – The contingency model of leadership effectiveness is the result of a comprehensive program of research begun at University of Illinois by Fred E. Fiedler in 1951. The term "contingency approach" or "contingency model" first suggested by Fiedler with regard to his own research has since come into such generic use for a wide range of situational leadership approaches, as to be almost a household word among researchers in the area. At the core of this research program is "least preferred co-worker" or LPC scale, a measure of leader orientation. An individual who fills out the LPC scale is asked to think of all the people with whom he has ever worked and to focus on the one person with whom "he had the most difficult time in getting a job done," i.e., his least preferred co-worker.

Prior to the formal presentation of the model in 1964, Fiedler and his associates collected data relating LPC to group performance in over 1,000 groups ranging from basketball teams, bomber and tank crews, surveying parties, and farm cooperative boards, to experimental groups composed of college students, managers, clergymen, and military personnel. Athough the relationship between LPC and group productivity was usually present and often quite strong, a consistent and reliable relationship was not originally found. It was not until Fiedler attempted to relate LPC to situational variables in a contingency approach that a coherent pattern of results emerged.

Fiedler (1967) suggests that leadership performance depends upon the situational favorableness as well as the leader's motivational pattern. The effectiveness of a given pattern of leader behavior is contingent upon the demands imposed by the situation. Hence, the relationship should be satisfactory and the task-motivated leaders should perform well in certain situations but not in others. "If we wish to improve organizational or group performance, it follows that we must either teach the leader a different motivational pattern (a difficult undertaking at best) or we must modify the situation so that it fits the leader's motivational pattern." (p. 115)

The specification of which situational variables should be considered and how they should be weighted is a difficult question. Fiedler gave primary importance to the leader's potential for influence and control in the group i.e., his perogatives for leadership. Fiedler identified three major variables which contribute to the leader's influence and control or "situational favorableness" as it is labeled in the contingency model. In order of importance, the three major determinants to situational favorableness are 1) the interpersonal relations between the leader and his followers, especially the followers' acceptance of the leader, 2) the task structure or the degree to which the group's task is clear-cut and unambiguous with verifiable goals and specified procedures for reaching the goal, and 3) the leaders formal power or position, that is, his ability to reward or punish the group members. It is assumed that leadership will be easier to implement when the leader is accepted, when his task is clear, specified, and unambiguous, and when the leader has the power to entice or coerce his followers into action. (For a full discussion of the logic and theoretical significance of the situational favorableness dimension see Fiedler, 1967, Fiedler and Chemers, 1974 a, or Fiedler and Chemers, 1974 b.)

To understand the significance of the contingency model as an instigator of research, it is necessary to understand that the model shares many of the

basic assumptions underlying all contingency approaches; the notion that there is no such thing as a universally good leader or one best way to lead is common to all contingency theories. And to a greater or lesser extent, all such theories embody the idea that there is a range of leadership styles or approaches that different styles are maximally effective in different situations (Chemers and Rice, 1974).

The contingency model makes a few further assumptions which are not logically necessary for all contingency approaches. Two of these assumptions are, however, crucial to Fiedler's theory. First, the contingency model maintains that certain leader attributes are stable and enduring and that these attributes must be integrated with situational factors in order to predict leadership effectiveness. In the contingency model, the stable attribute or attributes are embodied in a general orientation towards group activity which is measured through the LPC scale. Although Fiedler (1972) maintains that the manifestation of this orientation (e.g., behavior) may change with changes in the situation, the orientation itself is central to the individual and relatively unchanging. A corollary of this position is that the behavioral changes which occur in different situations are themselves consistent and predicatable from a knowlege of the leader's basic orientation.

The second assumption is the one which serves to make the contingency model unique and separate from other contingency theories. This assumption or set of assumptions underlies the specification of crucial situational variables. The number of potentially important situational variables approaches infinity. However, Fiedler selected weighted variables and combined a manageable subset of these variables. The dimension of situational favorableness as the leader's potential for influence and control represents the result of those assumptions in the contingency model.

A further assumption regarding situational favorableness concerns the number of elements included in evaluation of the favorableness dimension. In recent, as well as earlier writing (Fiedler, 1967, 1971; Fiedler and Chemers, 1974 a) it is clearly acknowledged that the three variables, leader acceptance, task structure, and position power are not the only variables which might be used to specify situational favorableness. Fiedler has, at times, integrated the variables of stress, cultural and linguistic heterogeneity, training and experience, leadership legitimation, and others, into specifications of favorableness. Rather, the three standard variables are assumed to represent the most general and most important of the situational variables. Another extremely important assumption is central to this line of reasoning about the contingency model. Situational favorableness, or potential influence and control, is a general and widely encompassing dimension. It is assumed that almost all variables which effect the leadership position can be subsumed into the favorableness dimension. This is an extremely important assumption for both theoretical and practical reasons, ***and especially for leadership training program purposes***.

Based on this general assumption, Fiedler has been able to incorporate a wide variety of organizational and psychological variables into the contingency model without changing its basic form or direction. For example, the effects of leader training and experience, organizational climate, internal and external stress, and leader intelligence have been integrated into the contingency model and have made important contributions to our under-

standing of leadership effectiveness.

Fiedler has received many comments and criticisms about his theory. In a later article (1973 b) he writes: "There are many other dimensions which should influence the favorableness of the situation for the leader. Thus, ... expertness of the leader and his familiarity with the task and with his group should affect the degree to which he can influence the members of his group." (p. 113)

Concluding his comments about the contingency model, Fiedler (1973 b) reminds us:

> The theory will, of course, continue to change as new data becomes available, and, in all probability, empirical research in the leadership area will continue to uncover complex interactions. We simply have to live with the fact that any attempt to predict pretzel-shaped relationships will require the development of pretzel-shaped hypothesis. (p. 113)

In their latest book, Fiedler and Chemers (1974 a) conclude that contingency theory is now operational and propose that LPC should be used for the selection and placement of people.

For further theoretical discussion on the contingency theories of leadership, refer to Korman (1973).

Saunders, et al. describe a specific theory of educational leadership (1966).

> Leadership is essential to improved educational programs. Educational leadership is any act which facilitates the achievement of educational objectives. . .Instructional improvement is the achievement of a set of objectives which seems to be directly and purposely related to improved learning experiences for students. . . .People are of utmost importance in efforts to improve education. A strong respect for people should permeate all relationships. . .Change in behavior, or learning, becomes an important consideration. . .The scientific method offers the most adequate approach to the solution of educational problems. The scientific method is flexible and adaptable to a solution of various problems of the learner. However, the method requires the learner to make a conscious and systematic approach to solving his problems. (pp. 39-40)

It appears that a series of leadership models is beginning to emerge. Unfortunately, each model seems restricted to a limited set of criteria and applicable at only one level of analysis. For example, House and Dessler (1974) on their path-goal theory confine their hypothesis testing to individual psychological states while Fiedler (1967) in his contingency theory seems to concentrate on group performance. Do we really need or want one theory of leadership for the individual level of analysis, another for groups, yet another for subsystems, and still another for organizations on top of different theories for different criteria? Such need not be the case if one takes a broad perspective. But most of the current models seem to give at least passing references to four sources of influence: the environment of the system, the internal structure and processes found within the system, the nature of the groups operating within the system, and the characteristics of individuals.

In summary, when is leadership important? When is it appropriate to view leadership as a moderating variable rather than an independent one? Do we even want to stay with leadership-based theories of organizational states and outcomes? All these are questions that remain to be asked in future research.

Meanwhile, this reviewer, in reviewing the recent literature on leadership, believes that Fiedler's contingency model is the one that seems to provide the greatest number of answers in the study of leadership and its training as well as englobing significant aspects of each of the other theories.

Leadership Behavior – Personality Traits and Situational Effects

Personality Traits

Following World War II, social scientists began to focus greater attention on the construct of behavior. Several projects in leadership research were designed to observe and catalogue leader behavior. The increasing sophistication of data analysis methods, such as factor analysis, and technologies such as the digital computer greatly aided the search for identifiable categories of leader behavior. The most impressive series of studies along this line were carried out by Ohio State University researchers. Through the observation, scaling, and factor analysis of leader behavior in hundreds of groups, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed. Fleishman (1973) notes that researchers were able to verify that the behaviors measured by the LBDQ represented several factors of leader behavior.

Recently there has been a shift in identification of traits possibly relevant to leadership from physical attributes to those of personality. McGrath and Altman (1966) after factor analysis of 20 small group studies, conclude that effective leadership seems to be a function of such attributes as intelligence, general ability to perform tasks, and level of formal education. Personality characteristics such as extroversion, assertiveness, and social maturity were also found to be related to effective leader behavior.

Mann (1959) in an excellent review of literature on several aspects of leadership behavior, arrived at similar results; in addition, he found 'interpersonal sensitivity' to be positively related to leadership.

But Chemers and Rice (1974) say that the identification of leader behavior categories did not, however, immediately solve the question of leadership effectiveness. The research programs of the 1950's were not able to reliably specify what type of leader or set of leader behaviors were consistently associated with group effectiveness. In a review of the relationship of leader orientation to follower satisfaction and group effectiveness, Korman (1966) found few consistent results.

Early research clearly has demonstrated that no single trait or pattern of leader behavior characterizes all effective leaders; at the same time, research shows the strong effects of situational factors on various leadership phenomena (leader emergency, behavior, and effectiveness). The necessity of an interaction approach to leadership emerged, and Fiedler's (1964, 1967) contingency model of leadership effectiveness is seen as having gone considerably beyond the efforts of other researchers in operationalizing such an approach.

Hollander and Julian (1971) also have presented theoretical models which emphasize the importance of including both personality and situational variables in leadership research. These models maintain that the leader's personality and the situation interact with one another in producing behaviors and outcomes.

Stout (1969), referring to the same situational effects, says: "What a leader has that others do not have, appears to be a combination of innate and achieved attributes. Achieved attributes in turn appear to be a function of the characteristics of the group members, the dynamics of the group, and the group's task." (p.701)

Gowan and Demos (1962) reached the following conclusions after their review of literature up to the 1960's:

1. The attempt to understand leadership in terms of personality traits was early supplanted by awareness of its situational nature.
2. Distinctions among leadership, headship, domination, status, and popularity helped investigators in sensing the role of leadership as a phenomenon of group interaction.
3. Correlation studies have shown that the following are associated to at least some extent with leadership: intelligence, humor, co-operation, voice aggressiveness, socio-economic level, stability, persistence, originality, popularity, sociability, and job status.
4. A large number of studies have established that leaders are significantly superior in scholarship, intelligence, physical vigor, socio-economic background, activity and social participation, verbal facility, self-control, appearance, and general emotional adjustment.
5. Studies in which follow-up was attempted indicate that these superiorities are retained in later life.
6. Studies in the psychodynamics of leadership have tended to indicate a division in the function as well as the structure of leadership. The leader comes to be viewed as "psychologically flexible" in the various roles he or she may choose to play in organizing the group.
7. Leadership, viewed functionally, comes to be identified with those behaviors which reinforce group security or bring about group integration. The opposite type of behavior tends to disrupt the group solidarity through the nonleaders' private worries and tensions. There may be several ways in which a nonleader acts so that the opposite of leadership is not only followership but also isolation.
8. Factor analysis approaches have indicated the presence of intelligence, physical energy, assertiveness, self-confidence, and lack of nervousness as components, although the field is an open one and more research needs to be done.

Finally, Stogdill (1974) after extensively surveying personality traits from 1948-1970 concluded:

> The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness, and originality in problem-solving, drive to

exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other person's behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand. (p. 81)

It can thus be concluded that different strata of leaders and followers can be described in terms of the extent to which they exhibit some of these characteristics.

Fundamentally, research on the characteristics of leaders indicate that they exhibit personality traits which are important factors in the emergence of a leader and in maintaining the role as well.

Leader Behavior and Situational Factors

Leaders may be divided into two classes according to their behaviors. (Fiedler, 1973 b). These are: (a) Leaders who direct their concern and effort toward establishing and maintaining good interpersonal relations, high morale, job satisfaction, etc. and (b) Leaders who are concerned with performance and express that concern by directing and structuring the group effort toward the common goal. The hope of earlier studies was to identify leader behaviors related to effective group performacne as well as member satisfaction so that leaders might be trained to engage in those behaviors. But Korman (1966) showed in his review of available literature that leader behaviors did not correlate consistently with group effectiveness. No consistent relations emerged between the structuring behaviors of the leader and either effectiveness or member satisfaction.

The lack of empirical evidence showing that these dimensions affect performance leaves us perplexed. One clue, however, is the finding that situational factors and certain personality attributes interact in determining leadership effectiveness (Fiedler, 1967, 1971). It seems obvious that the behavior of leaders or of anyone else, will to some extent depend upon the situation. Consequently, the problem is whether: (a) the tendency to behave in a considerate, follower-centered manner is an attribute of the leader's personality, and therefore properly considered to be his leadership style; or (b) whether the leader's personality and the situation interact, and the person who is considerate under one set of conditions tends to be relatively less considerate under other conditions. If the latter is the case, it will have major implications for current leadership theory as well as for our current attempts to train people to become more considerate or human-relations oriented in their interactions with subordinates.

Fiedler (1973) discusses the likelihood that we are almost definitely dealing with an interaction between the situation and relevant personality attributes. The problem, then, rests in identifying the relevant personality attributes as well as the situational factors which determine how individuals in leadership positions will behave.

But then, what is a 'relevant personality attribute' in a leadership position? It may be said to be "any reliable personality variable of the leader which affects such other important types of group behaviors as performance" (Fiedler, 1973 b). One variable of this type is the ***Least Preferred Co-worker*** (LPC) score. Currently three possible interpretations of LPC are most

prominent. Two of these interpretations employ motivational constructs which are assumed to be manifested in leader behavior. The third explanation leans in a cognitive direction and focuses more on perception and information processing than on behavior. Recent research at the University of Utah has yielded interesting results which may shed some light on this question.

The original interpretation of LPC as an index of motivational characteristics was conceptually quite simple (Fiedler, 1964), 1967). Low LPC leaders, who completely rejected an incompetent co-worker, were thought to be primarily motivated toward successful task achievement. High LPC leaders were considered to be oriented toward and motivated by good interpersonal relations. This motivation was assumed to manifest itself in behavior designed to satisfy that need, specifically high levels of considerate, socioemotional behavior. A high LPC score, indicating that the individual described his LPC in relatively favorable terms, is interpreted as reflecting a basic motivation to be related to others. A low LPC score is interpreted as reflecting a motivation toward task accomplishment. LPC has a great relevance for this discussion, because several studies, particularly Fiedler's (1971 ab, 1972, 1973 ab), have found that low LPC leaders tend to perform better in very favorable leadership situations as well as in unfavorable ones, while high LPC leaders tend to perform better in situations which are intermediate in favorableness. Fiedler says, "It is not unreasonable to expect, therefore, that we should find a similar interaction between LPC and situational favorableness in determining leader behavior." (1973 a, p. 44)

The favorableness dimension is most frequently defined on the basis of three components. (Fiedler, 1973, b, p. 45) (a) the degree to which the leader feels accepted by his group (the group-atmosphere score); (b) the degree to which the task is structured; and (c) the degree to which the leader position has power and influence.

Different studies have dealt with the interaction of the leaders' LPC score and various situational factors in determining the behavior of the leader, but this would be a separate and long paper in itself. For our present purposes it is sufficient to say that the behavior of leaders depends in substantial degree upon the individual's personality (measured by LPC) and the ***favorableness of the situation***. By and large, high LPC leaders tend to behave in a task relevant manner in favorable situations and in a considerate manner in an unfavorable situation. Low LPC leaders tend to be considerate in favorable situations and structuring and task oriented in unfavorable situations. This suggests that different behaviors are evoked by the situation as it becomes less favorable, hence, less controllable and more threatening.

Following are some recent studies correlating the trait of intelligence with leadership.

Intelligence vs. Leadership

Campbell et al. (1970) provided convincing evidence of the limited and partial role played by the leader's personal attributes such as intelligence. For example, the relationship between the leader's intelligence and his group's performance has been generally low and inconsistent. (Csoka, 1974) Stogdill (1969), Mann (1959) reported a very low relationship between leadership and intelligence (between .10 and .28). Howvever, Csoka (1974) says that this low relationship can be explained through Fiedler's Contingency Model.

In his study, he conceptualized intelligence as the ability to integrate one's experience. It was found that leaders with high intelligence were not necessarily the higher performers and that when they had very little experience, their intelligence was not beneficial. In effect, he concludes, the less intelligent leaders could not use their experience and their inexperienced leaders could not use their intelligence in better directing the group. The results, in accordance with Fiedler's theory, seem to indicate that leader intelligence should be viewed as a moderating variable that affects the usefulness of one's experience. This, in turn, should substantially influence the relative expertise that a leader has in any given situation.

Fiedler himself states (1973 b) that "our understanding of the interaction of LPC and intelligence is quite rudimentary," (p. 52) and that attention should be drawn to the existing studies for hypotheses for further studies. It should not be surprising that the leader's intelligence affects his behavior. Intelligence may be seen as a resource which enables the individual to understand and structure tasks, to deal more effectively with his environment and thus to remove the threat and anxiety which might be experienced by the relatively less endowed person.

An important study relating the situational factors in leader behaviors to intelligence was done by Meuwese and Fiedler (1965). They studied ROTC cadets who were assigned to 54 three-man groups and given creative tasks under three conditions of stress: (a) low stress, in which the leader's and the member anxiety was minimized; (b) interpersonal stress, in which conflict among group members was experimentally generated; and (c) external stress, which was created by having a very formal task situation in which a high ranking officer faced and continually evaluated the group during the entire period of interaction.

The leaders were divided into those with relatively high, moderate, and relatively low intelligence, although all were, of course, college students who had been selected for the ROTC program. The sessions were tape recorded and rated. The high LPC leaders under the less stressful conditions tended to be concerned with the task while the low LPC leaders tended to concern themselves with the relation-maintaining statements. However, under greater stress situations, the high LPC leaders were concerned with the relationships while the low LPC leaders were concerned with the task.

These results seem to show that intelligence may affect the situational favorableness as subjectively experienced by the leader.

Measurement of Leadership Traits

To a large extent, the method used to date in various studies made has been to select individuals in high office as persons to examine for leadership (without assuming that these individuals are, in fact, leaders in terms of the more operational definition suggested above). This is partly because the studies have been carried on in highly organized groups, – in the Navy, in industry, and in educational systems. When studies are made in less structured situations, it is especially important to employ other methods, such as sociometric choice, detailed observational techniques, analysis of reputational data, past decision-making, patterns of influence, and the like.

There are now a large number of tests that are carefully designed,

administered, and interpreted to measure and analyze leadership traits. Numerous trait studies have been made of the physical, intellectual, and social characteristics of leaders.

Commenting about measurement results, Bavelas (1960) says:

> On various tests, persons who are leaders tend to be brighter, tend to be better adjusted psychologically, and tend to display better judgment. Studies that have concentrated on the social behavior of leaders show that they 'interact' more than nonleaders. They tend to give more information, to ask for more information, and to take the lead in summing up or interpreting a situation. (p. 497)

Despite recent developments in the measurement of traits in relation to leadership, the practice still receives much criticism. For example, regarding the use of psychometrics to measure dominance, Mann (1959) says:

> The two measures of dominance which yield the best evidence for a positive relationship between dominance and leadership are the Ascendence and Dominance scales from the Guilford-Zimmerman and 16 P.F., respectively. Particularly unsuccessful, however, have been the attempts to use Allport's Ascendence. Data suggest that dominant or ascendent individuals who tend to be selected as leaders are more sociable and outgoing, although the process of inferring such a characterization from the titles of the personality scales is a tenuous matter at best. (p. 267)

Bavelas (1960 also criticizes the measurements themselves:

> The results are obtained by a method that requires an initial separation of people into 'leaders' and 'nonleaders' or 'good leaders' and 'not-so-good leaders.' The validity of the distinguishing traits that come out of such work, the argument goes, can only be as good as the validity of the preliminary grouping of the persons being studied. All of this leads to the question, 'On what basis is the initial separation of subjects made, and how is it justified?' (p. 498)

Bavelas emphasizes that there is no reference to a system of values based on qualities that are difficult or impossible to measure.

The measuring of the leader's qualities and abilities through the values of factor analysis has been mentioned in a very positive manner. Stogdill (1974) points out several advantages: it brings together on the same factor all items acting alike in describing the individuals in the samples as well as being able to describe a generalized form of behavior rather than the minute details of behavior. "The generalized behavior described by the 26 factors produces a more meaningful, logical picture of the leader than would be provided by a list of 100 haphazardly selected items, all correlated with leadership status and effectiveness." (p. 97) The results of the factorial studies indicate that there is no need for an infinitely large number of variables in order to obtain a well-balanced description of the leader.

It is increasingly clear that it is difficult to carry out effective field research on leadership. Leader behavior measures are not likely to be independent of each other. Consequently, it is necessary to ascertain the degree of interdependence and control where possible. When two measures of leader behavior are so intercorrelated that they reflect a common under-

lying dimension, tests of the theory with such measures would be invalid. Consequentiy, any significant covariance among leader behavior dimensions should be held constant.

The evidence also suggests that leadership is a relationship that exists between persons in a social situation, and that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations. Must it then be assumed that leadership is entirely incidental, haphazard, and unpredictable? Not at all. Gowan and Demos (1962) and Stogdill (1974) in their review of literature on leadership concluded that the very studies which provide the strongest arguments for the situational nature of leadership also supply the strongest evidence indicating that leadership patterns of behavior are persistent and relatively stable. They observe that the individual's choice behavior, in contrast to his social expansiveness, appears to be expression of needs which are so 'central' to his personality that he must strive to fulfill them whether or not the possibility of fulfilling them is at hand.

From the literature researched, it can be seen that improvements can still be made in developing valid measurements of leadership. There remains the question, "How does the researcher know that leadership has been observed?"

Studies on the Contingency Theory of Leadership

Several studies have replicated and polished Fiedler's contingency model.

Korman (1973) manipulated the variables in the model in a group problem-solving situation. Leaders had been previously told the solutions to the problems and asked to assume specific roles: Type I (high accuracy/ authoritarian); Type II (high accuracy/democratic); Type III (low accuracy/ authoritarian); and Type IV (low accuracy/democratic). Type I behavior produced the highest scores in accuracy, Types II and IV rated intermediate and Type III produced the lowest scores, according to Fiedler's model.

Rice and Chemers (1973 a) attempted to predict leadership styles of emergent leaders according to Fiedler's contingency model but were unsuccessful. However, the predictions of ***leadership effectiveness*** were accurate and provided support for the model.

Carefully controlled laboratory experiments can answer questions concerning the validity of the model. Chemers et al. (1973) tested the effects of leadership training on group performance. One hundred and twenty college students (80 ROTC cadets and 40 introductory psychology students) were recruited for an experiment in group performace. The ROTC cadets participated as a required part of their course work and the psychology students received extra credit in exchange for their participation. Forty groups of three men each were randomly constructed, with leaders chosen from the upper and lower third of the distribution of LPC scores. The leaders were always ROTC cadets, and each group was composed of a cadet leader, one cadet follower, and one psychology student follower.

All groups were brought together for a 45-minute task session. Each group was given 18 cryptograms (coded messages) to solve in a predetermined order.

Prior to the group task session, half of the leaders received a 30-minute lecture-demonstration-participation training program in cryptogram solution.

While such decoding procedures are not generally known to the novice, such procedures do exist, and knowledge of these procedures drastically reduces the ambiguity of the task.

Leader position power was controlled at a low level by telling the groups that the leader was a coordinator with responsibility for the group's performance but with no real power to reward or punish group members. Leader-member relations were a priori predicted to be good. Given these manipulations, the experiment was designed to replicate Fiedler's octant II (good leader-member relations, high task structure, low position power) for trained leaders and octant IV (good leader-member relations, low task structure, low position power) for untrained leaders.

This predicted interaction of training and LPC was found to be extremely significant ($F=24.61$, $p < .000\#$). As predicted, low LPC leaders had the most productive groups in the untrained leader condition, while high LPC led groups were most productive in the trained leader condition.

This experiment provides extremely strong support for Fiedler's (1972) hypothesis. The study also provides further support for the basic predictive validity of the contingency model. Discussing the study, Chemers and Rice (1974) commented: "It can be concluded from these findings that training does indeed cause an alteration in the leadership situation, which, when moderated by LPC, has powerful effects on productivity." (p. 114)

The interpretation of LPC as an index of motivational characteristics is nicely illustrated in recent findings by Rice and Chemers (1973 a). They found that low LPC followers rated group atmosphere significantly higher when their groups were highly productive than when they were unproductive. However, low LPC followers' ratings of group atmosphere were unaffected by differences in leader-member relations. On the other hand, the group atmosphere scores of high LPC followers differed significantly as a function of leader-member relations, but were unaffected by group productivity. The underlying logic of this interpretation of LPC is that although the leader's behavior, either structuring or considerate, is constant across situations, the situational leadership demands vary. Thus, according to Fiedler (1967, 1971) low LPC leaders are successful in the situations which require strong and directive leadership, that is, the very good and/or very bad situations. On the other hand, the moderately favorable situations require the subtler, more relationship oriented style of the high LPC leader.

Rice and Chemers (1973 a) argue, however, that the success of low LPC leaders in highly favorable situations can be the result of the appropriate matching between the leader's level of cognitive differentiation and the amount of differentiation inherent in the group task situation.

This analysis is provocative. However, the ***post hoc*** analysis of the situation on the basis of differentiation does not provide an adequate test of the hypothesis. This is especially true because the same predictions about the relationship between LPC and performance are made by the cognitive differentiation hypothesis and by the motivational hypothesis. So far, the differential matching interpretation has done no more than apply different terms to the dimensions of the contingency model, i.e., LPC is termed a measure of cognitive complexity and favorableness and is relabeled as an index of situational complexity. It remains to be seen if such an interpretation offers any advantages over earlier interpretations.

Recently, Fiedler (1972, 1973 a) has offered a new motivational interpretation of LPC. While the original interpretation proposed that LPC is an index of the goal that motivates leader behavior, his new interpretation proposes that LPC is an index of a ***hierarchy of goals***. Consistent with the earlier interpretations, Fiedler maintained that the primary goal of low LPC leaders is task achievement while the primary goal of high LPC leaders is good interpersonal relations. The new interpretation differs from earlier formulations in that it introduces secondary goals, which become active when primary motives have been satisfied. The secondary goal for low LPC persons is successful interpersonal relations, while high LPC persons are secondarily motivated to attain individual prominence and attention for themselves within the group.

The motivational hierarchy interpretation of LPC makes several assumptions which are at variance with earlier interpretations. First, the behavior of both high and low LPC persons is assumed to change with the situation. Under very favorable conditions, low LPC leaders maintain high levels of relationship-oriented or consideration behavior and are also most successful. Under moderately favorable conditions, the high LPC leaders are more considerate and also more successful. Only under very unfavorable conditions does the implied correlation between consideration and success break down.

Thus, LPC is seen as a measure of the individual's degree of differentiation in task situations. A high LPC leader, when asked to rate an individual with whom he had difficulty getting a job done, (i.e., his least preferred co-worker), differentiates between this individual's task performance and personal attributes.

The high LPC person is able to rate his least preferred co-worker. On the other hand, the low LPC person, who gives his least preferred co-worker uniformly low ratings on both task and interpersonal dimensions, is showing a lower degree of differentiation.

The results of a recent study by Rice and Chemers (1973 b) clarify the value of the complexity interpretation. In this laboratory experiment were 32 three-man groups of college students with leaders chosen from the upper or lower third of the distribution of LPC scores. An attempt was made to manipulate leader-member relations in the following manner. Half the groups were told that, on the basis of tests administered earlier in the psychology class, the members of this group were highly similar in their orientation toward group function, and they should have a very compatible and effective group.

The other half were told that while the two followers were quite similar in their orientations, they were very different from the leader of the group. They were further told that these differences might well lead to an incompatible and difficult group experience. Group atmosphere ratings completed after the task indicated that the manipulation was successful, with subjects in the poor relations condition reporting significantly lower group atmosphere scores.

Half the groups were assigned a structured task which required the construction of a tinker toy model from a set of blueprints. The other groups worked on an unstructured task which asked the group to compose an original story in response to an ambiguous picture stimulus. These manipu-

lations yielded four groups with good and poor leader-member relation and high and low task structure. Power was low in all conditions.

All groups were videotaped and trained observers rated the leader's behavior on three dimensions. Factor analyses of the measure indicated three dimensions which were labeled task oriented behavior, relationship oriented behavior, and prominence seeking behavior. On all three dimensions there was almost no variability in the behavior of low LPC leaders across situations according to the observer ratings of high and low LPC leader behavior on the three behavior dimensions. The high LPC leaders, on the other hand, show great variability due almost completely to their reaction to differences in task structure.

These effects clearly support the differentiation hypothesis of Foa, Mitchell and Fiedler (1971). Variability in leader behavior across the four cells was compared for high and low LPC leaders, and the F-ratios (with 3/3 df) are 28,88 for task oriented behavior, ($p < .025$), 7.22 for prominence seeking behavior, ($p < .10$) and 13.02 for relationship oriented behavior ($p < .05$).

The variance results are consistent with Mitchell's (1970) earlier findings that high complexity leaders show greater variability in their behavior across different situations than do low complexity leaders. The parallel findings for high cognitive complexity leaders and high LPC leaders support the Foa et al. (1971) hypothesis that LPC is a measure of cognitive complexity.

The results also point to an interpretation relevant to the motivational hierarchy question. From the less favorable unstructured task to the more favorable structured task the high LPC leaders show an increase in task oriented and prominence seeking behaviors and a decrease in relationship oriented behaviors relative to low LPC leaders. It is seen, however, that this effect is caused completely by the high LPC leaders' response to task structure rather than a change in the behavior of both high and low LPC leaders in response to overall changes in situational favorableness.

The results of the Rice and Chemers (1973 b) experiment suggest that the changes in leader behavior are the result of the high LPC leader's differentiation of and response to changes in task characteristics. These findings led Chemers and Rice (1974) to conclude that "the complexity-differentiation hypotheses appears to be the most fruitful avenue for future investigation." (p. 122)

Another interesting fact was uncovered in the Rice and Chemers experiment. Although significant and consistent differences in leader behavior were found between high and low LPC leaders, the behaviors themselves were uncorrelated with group activity. This may be due to the possibility that measures of behavior were more reliable and valid than measures of group productivity. On the other hand, it might indicate that our traditional categories of leader behavior and traditional way of measuring behavior, i.e., total score on a behavior factor, may not be assessing the most crucial aspect of the leader's behavior. It may be more important to look at changes in the leader's behavior over time or in response to changes in the situation. These results also suggest that it may be useful to look at other categories of leader behavior besides the traditional categories used in Chemers and Rice's (1973 b) study. The cognitive differentiation interpretation of the

contingency model suggests that cognitively related forms of leader behavior may mediate the relationship between LPC and group productivity, e.g., the leader's manner of dealing with equivocality, the perception and integration of task and interpersonal demands, patterns of information exchange, etc. Also we may wish to examine the variability in leader behavior matched to the situational demands for differentiation. Future research with these specific foci in mind may help to pin down the elusive link between leader LPC and group performance.

Criticisms of the Contingency Model

Kerr and Harlan (1973) examined the training hypothesis (Fiedler, 1972) and offered several points of criticism or clarification. They maintained that training and experience effects are really an unimportant addition to the favorableness dimension. They argue that if a situation is favorable, it makes little difference how the situation became so. However, they are missing an important point. Since there is no direct measure of favorableness which is independent of the variables which specify it, any variable which affects favorableness becomes extremely important. The measurement of additional relevant variables helps to refine the measurement of favorableness. The inclusions of training and experience both refines and extends the scope of the situational determinants of leadership effectiveness.

It must be observed that since the contingency model makes its predictions on the basis of a static LPC score, any change in LPC should reduce the predictability of the theory. The results of the studies by Csoka and Fiedler (1972) and Chemers et al. (1973) indicate that the theory is predictive at a very powerful level.

One qualifier is in order. Most of the studies cited by Fiedler (1972) involve some form of technical training. Kerr and Harlan (1973) quite correctly pointed out that it is reasonable to assume that human relations training may have very different effects from those of technical training. Leaving aside the question of the general efficacy of human relations training, the effect of such programs might affect leader-member relations more directly than task structure. ***Type of training is consistently an important variable which should be examined in future research.***

Korman (1973) enunciates more direct points in his criticisms of the model:

> All that is crucial is that the behaviors associated with the specific critical values be noted and attempts at replication be made. However, this approach has at least two of the disadvantages of any purely empirical procedure. First, it allows for an infinite number of levels of the situations. Second, it provides no guidance as to the conditions under which the relationships found will generalize to new situations. In this sense, then, the relationships found must be situation-bound and time-bound, unless there is some reason to think otherwise. Because of these considerations, the adoption of a purely empirical procedure may be uneconomical. (p. 385)

Discussing the effects of personality variables and situational variables, he says:

> We need to study the effects of personality variables and situational variables, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally, as separate variables affecting behaviors, and as joint variables affecting behavior in either an additive or multiplicative relationship to one another. However, what would ***not*** be predicted on a priority basis would be that the behavioral significance of any value of one independent variable would show interactive, nonlinear relationships with the particular values of the other. (p. 387)

Finally, in discussing the value of the contingency model, Chemers (1974) concludes:

> Whichever avenues of future research are chosen, it is clear that the contingency approach must be adopted. The value of the contingency approach in the study of the relationships between LPC, leader behavior, and group productivity was clearly illustrated in the Rice and Chemers (1973 b) study. In this experiment, leader behavior differed as a function of situational factors (the task), personal attributes (LPC), and interactions involving individual and situational factors. Such results indicate that a contingency approach, recognizing both situational and personal factors, is necessary for an adequate theory of leader behavior or related leadership process. . . .We should note that the contingency model is not the final answer to the study of leadership effects. Certain leadership phenomena, such as follower loyalty and satisfaction and global organizational effects are not adequately dealt with by the model. Other contingency theories of leadership with different foci will continue to add to our understanding of leadership. We feel, however, that after over twenty years of research the contingency model is alive and well. It is, in fact, still growing and promises to remain a viable source of research ideas and theoretical advances. (p. 12)

Can Leadership Be Taught, after All?

There is evidence throughout the literature surveyed that leadership can be taught to and developed in persons of average or above average intelligence, (Fiedler, 1972, 1973 b) depending upon the situation. Leadership is not a divine right that only special persons are born with; it is a combination of the personality factors, or innate abilities and characteristics of the people and of situational factors and opportunities.

This author believes that leadership is inherent in everyone; everyone has certain personality factors and innate abilities that will qualify him as a leader at a certain point or in some specific situation. Different types of problem-solvers arise for different occasions – what the leader must be able to do is to bear the responsibility at the time that the situation comes.

Consequently, leadership may be defined as the force by which an individual exerts an influence in releasing, channeling, and controlling the thoughts, energies, and emotions of others. This force may be direct or indirect; constructive or destructive. The individual's personality, knowledge, and special capacity (talent or acquired skill) as well as his problem-solving powers, creative imagination, his character (strength of will, courage) and his

experience, strongly affect or even determine the quality of the leadership. All of these factors, or any combination of them in action, are the force we call *leadership*.

Carter (1953), Eichler (1934), Isaacs (1973), Zoleny (1941) among others have emphasized that leadership can be taught. Stogdill (1974) reports that Haiman, by 1950, had concluded that there was sufficient experimental evidence to prove that leadership can be created, trained, and developed in persons of normal intelligence and emotional stability who are willing to make the effort to learn.

Gowan (1972) comments:

> It should be pointed out that some of the value in leadership training lies in its power to help the individual understand himself as a result of his increased understanding of the dynamics of human emotions generally. As a result he may decrease autocratic tendencies and allow others enough freedom to work creatively. For this reason courses in leadership training, in general, constitute excellent personal therapy, since in learning to govern others we must, perforce, learn to govern ourselves. (p. 12)

As early as 1970, Fiedler was concerned with the effects of leadership training and experience on group and organizational performance. His contingency model theory postulates that the effectiveness of the groups depends on (a) the personality, or more specifically, the motivational system of the leader measured by his least preferred co-worker score, and (b) the situational favorableness or the degree to which the situation gives the leader power and influence.

Fiedler maintains that leadership training might usefully be thought of as modifying the situation in which the leader functions rather than modifying the man himself.

The importance of leadership training and experience hypothesis offered by Fiedler (1972) bring about a very important variable in the defense of Fiedler's contingency model. Since there is no direct measure of favorableness which is independent of the variables which specify it, any variable which affects favorableness becomes extremely important. As the measurement of additional relevant variables helps to refine the measurement of favorableness, the inclusions of training and experience both refines and extends the scope of the situational determinants of leadership effectiveness. The results of the studies by Csoka and Fiedler (1972) and Chemers et al. (1973) indicate that the theory is predictive at a very powerful level.

The hypothesis that LPC is a measure of cognitive complexity and that high complexity leaders show greater variability in their behavior across different situations than do low complexity leaders under 3 dimensions of factor analysis labeled task oriented behavior, relationship oriented behavior, relationship oriented behavior and prominence seeking behavior was confirmed by Foa, Mitchell and Fiedler (1971), Mitchell (1970) and Rice and Chemers (1973).

The variations found in the contingency theory allows for the operation of personality and situational factors in determining the optimum pattern. Interpersonal values and Fiedler's LPC measure (Fiedler, 1964) in particular,

may help us predict which patterns of training may be emphasized in which situations.

Several studies have found significant results when training is applied to the leadership situation, and when moderated by LPC, it has powerful effects on Group productivity. (Chemers et al., 1973; Korman, 1973; Rice and Chemers 1973 a).

But we know less about consistency of the same leader's behavior across different situations. Data from Fiedler and others certainly indicate the need for adaptability and flexibility in emphasizing different leadership patterns as situations change. But some basic factors in the training of leadership will remain constant. (Fiedler, 1967).

We need, as Fleishman concluded in twenty years of research on leadership consideration and leader initiating structure (1973), "theory and data to develop to a conceptualization of situational and personality variance as these might relate to the effective operation of consideration and structure and other dimensions of leadership." (p. 37)

Reviewing personal experiences can help determine leadership potential. Personal goals for leaders who wish to improve include: (Isaacs, 1973)

1. Being liked and respected by members of class;
2. Being able to influence others to work toward good goals;
3. Being able to influence others to be leaders;
4. Taking charge of a group;
5. Judging ability of others;
6. Solving problems and helping others improve;
7. Being worthy of job;
8. Being looked up to by others;
9. Sensing what others want and helping them accomplish it;
10. Enthusiasm – entering activities with goals for improvement (p. 110)

Some suggestions to ehance the effects of ***leadership training*** are:

1) develop an atmosphere in which people feel free to discuss and express themselves;

2) develop a sense of shared interests and problems and a climate of mutual respect and understanding among members in which each is willing to help and be helped by the others;

3) adapt the training program to meet the needs and interests of all members in this particular group;

4) develop a problem-solving orientation toward difficulties of leadership;

5) clarify the training goals – what members hope to accomplish through study, discussion and practice;

6) understand ***internal*** forces for and against change; also understand ***external*** forces for and against change;

7) acquire and practice new skills which analysis of the leadership situation shows are most needed;

8) relate training to the actual situations in which the members will use it;

9) provide continued reinforcement and help in applying what has been learned in training to the situation; be able to have the knowledge of and the ability to properly execute the fundamentals;

10) provide use of role playing in the training situation, to bring out data about human behavior and human relations which are not made available by more traditional methods; allow many attitudes and feelings that fundamentally affect group process, but are usually left unexpressed and subjective, to be brought before the group for review;

11) structure the experience to achieve specific goals, with the structure coming from established psychological principles;

12) provide constant feedback to the student, as an aid to personal development;

13) develop a sense of 'self' within each individual. Just being 'oneself', never fighting oneself and being at ease in any situation is a large step to success. Mr. John Wooden, former coach of the UCLA Bruins clarified this process for his National Champion basketball players as follows: "Success is peace of mind which is a direct result of self-satisfaction in knowing you did your best to become the best that you are capable of becoming."

It has been generalized that probably the most important form of leadership in the United States is that of lawyers. Members of the legal profession are predominant among U.S. political leaders which suggests that nationally, leadership is seen to be a process of mediating between opposing forces.

The military services have often proved to be an effective school for leadership:

> But Americans have had little patience with formal leadership training outside the military academies and some business-management courses, where the emphasis is often on case studies and field work. "Leadership can be developed and improved by study and training," General Omar Bradley once told a class at the Army Command and General Staff College in Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. "But don't discount experience. Someone may remind you that Napoleon led armies before he was 30 and Alexander the Great died at 33. Alexander might have been even greater if he had lived to an older age and had had more experience. In this respect, I especially like the theory that 'judgment comes from experience and experience comes from bad judgment.'" (p. 24)

Various societies have set about schooling their young for leadership; England is one example. The United States has generally operated on the theory of a laissez-faire of merit; it allows leadership to rise from nearly every rank of the society.

> Indeed, Americans hardly realize how revolutionary – and vulnerable – is the idea that a nation can have leadership without a trained

elite, a leadership subject to popular mandate. (Time Magazine, 1974 p. 25)

Fiedler (1972) says that leadership training can take essentially one or two forms. In the first, leaders can acquire more technical knowledge or more management skills, including either formulas and guidelines. The second is the approach variously termed human relations or sensitivity training. The author found that high-position leaders decreased in performance with more training. Attempting to improve the leader's performance with additional training did not improve the group's performance. Situations in which the informed leader was not the president produced unfavorable leadership situations. However, leadership training also can be interpreted as improving the situation by increasing the power and influence of the leader.

Stogdill (1974), after his extensive review of the literature, concluded:

> . . . results of research suggest that direct training in techniques of leadership result in improved effectiveness as a leader. A relatively large body of research on sensitivity training indicates that such training results in increased leader sympathy with the human relations approach, greater awareness of self and others, and more receptivity to follower initiative and responsibility. The few studies investigating the relationship of training to group performance suggest that follower satisfaction and group cohesiveness tend to increase, while productivity tends to decrease, in response to senstitivity training of the leader. (pp. 412-413)

Principles of Leadership Programs

Adecuate programs for developing leadership in school involve the following principles (Gowan and Demos, 1962):

1. There must be leadership functions for the students. School leaders must have legitimate functions including (a) responsibility, (b) need for interaction with others, and (c) delegated power. Examples of such leadership functions are the roles of class officers, the student council, commissioner, athletic managers, members of service clubs, holder of judicial posts and others with control of minor disciplinary procedures, monitors, and the like.
2. Opportunities for these functions must be theoretically open to all students and actually open to a sizeable percentage of students. Prerequisites for candidacy for leadership roles are legitimate, but they should not be severe.
3. Leadership selection should be prefaced by tryouts in which several candidates have a chance to compete.
4. Any method of selection that emphasizes the candidate's group membership rather than personal qualities is detrimental and should be changed.
5. The leadership program should be integrated throughout the entire school, not confined to just one section or class.
6. The leadership program should include training in the rudiments of parlimentary procedure and in the ability to stand on one's feet and speak without notes.

7. The administration and faculty should have theoretical, but rarely used, veto power over selective acts and decisions of student leaders. The price of learning democratic leadership procedure is often some inefficiency in time or procedure, which adults must be willing to endure. (pp. 12-13)

Several studies provide concrete ideas on how to aid the development of leadership. Isaacs (1973) reports and set in assessing a workshop for leaders in 1970 (similar to T-groups and conducted on weekends), stated that change occurred through 1) goal setting; 2) self-assessment; 3) using available resources; 4) behavioral implementation; 5) assessing progress; and 6) modifying and correcting behaviors.

Gowan (1972) concludes that counselors can lead children to greater creativity by helping them:

1. Learn to care for their physical and emotional needs, including love, and self-esteem
2. Direct their aggressive drives into constructive channels
3. Win support, admiration, and confidence
4. Learn to reward their own efforts and market their ideas
5. Promote positive mental health

A final statement by Isaacs (1973) seems very appropriate:

> Gifted leaders, well-trained, with high values and ideals, merit cultivation. They can give us a good life collectively and bring out the best in each of us. (p. 111)

Conclusion

A basic and fundamental tool for a person to use in order to feel in touch within himself and others is the ability to communicate – real communication, in which one is aware and in touch with his feelings and is able to communicate that to others.

We ought to be able to make the most of ourselves, to be fully creative, fully functioning, happy human beings, to use ourselves to the fullest and be capable of, as Maslow would say, 'becoming.'

As we observe the progress of the world, we also observe people who are not able to cope with the rapid pace of this era. Consequently, these individuals close themselves in, not even communicating with themselves, merely becoming moving machines, not aware anymore that once they were palpable, touchable, and lovable human beings. The times make them feel that they ought to be like machines to survive in this world.

If we can open these people up, make them unafraid of communicating with other people, make them able to express their feelings to one another, then we will have accomplished much. To be able to achieve self-fulfillment and creativity certainly can be called a 'peak experience.'

Leadership training can lead to more awareness within oneself, to better recognition of emotional and spiritual things, to greater self-fulfillment, to fuller experiences enriched with creativity.

If in a leadership training program we achieve the goal of making the person more aware of himself, more able to have 'peak experiences' and

more able to communicate with himself and others, it will be a significant achievement, because the capacity to be in touch with oneself, and, consequently with others, is the basic tool for a person to be capable of being a leader. Other variables that are conducive to good leadership may or may not happen; it all depends on the situation. If the basic structure is missing, there will always be something lacking in a leader.

Leadership ought to be a high educational priority. It must be understood that it is more than a tool or instrumentality of procedure: indeed, it is also a process which aims toward change. As Gowan and Demos (1962) explain:

> The leader is the temporary stewardship of the followers' unrealized rights and opportunities. His is the mission to help them make progress, not in controlling others, but to help themselves to greater freedom. In this, his leadership implements and becomes itself a part of that greatest imperative of any culture; the gradual evolutionary progression of a larger and larger share of its people toward self-determination, self-understanding, and self-fulfillment. (p. 17)

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Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 states:

"No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, or denied the benefit of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance."

Therefore, federal programs must be operated in compliance with this law.